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HISTORY OF EDUCATION
IN THE
MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

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HISTORY OF EDUCATION

IN THE

MADRAS PRESIDENCY

**PROCEEDINGS OF THE DIRECTOR OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, No. 11817.**

Dated 6th December 1894.

“The Director welcomes the appearance of this much needed volume, the publication of which was sanctioned in Proceedings No. 697, dated 26th January 1894. Mr. Sathianadan has spared no pains to get at facts and, having got them, he has presented them in an orderly arrangement and in clear well-chosen language. The book deserves to be in the hands of every one engaged in educational work in this Presidency.”

M a d r a s :

SRINIVASA, VARADACHARI & CO.

MRS. RADHABAI ATMARAM SAGOON, BOMBAY.

1894.

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HISTORY OF EDUCATION

IN THE

MADRAS PRESIDENCY

BY

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[Published with the sanction of the Director of
Public Instruction.]



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1894.


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PREFACE.

HIS is the first attempt that has been made to present to the public a continuous history of educational operations in the Madras Presidency. In 1854, Sir Alexander Arbuthnot gave a brief narrative of the efforts that had been made by the Government of Madras for the extension and advancement of education in this Presidency; but these efforts, as will be seen, were fitful and spasmodic and wanting in continuity. In 1884 there was issued, under the authority of the Education Commission, a statement of the Progress of Education in the Madras Presidency from 1854 to 1881.* This statement, though dealing with important measures from time to time introduced by Government, does not claim to be a *history* of education, the information given in it being meagre and mainly statistical in character.

In the compilation of the work I have had access to original records and reports kindly placed at my service by the Director of Public Instruction. The very abundance of material at my command has proved a considerable difficulty in the way of presenting the salient features in

* *Vide* Appendix to Education Commission Report—Report by the Madras Provincial Committee.

the progress of British education in this Presidency in a concise manner and within readable compass. To what extent I have succeeded in doing this, the reader alone can judge for himself.

My task being confined chiefly to chronicling facts, I have not attempted to criticise policies. There are no doubt large questions connected with Indian education which have been and are still the subject of warm discussion among educationists and others interested in Indian progress, but the discussion of these subjects does not come within the scope of the present work. It must also be remembered that the history of education in India has been mainly one of measures and statistics, and as yet there are no characteristic movements of a purely indigenous character. British education in India is still an exotic, and the progress visible is almost entirely due to the efforts of Government and of Missionary agencies.

For purposes of convenience I have dealt with the History of Education in this Presidency under four periods. The first period extends, roughly speaking, from 1822 to 1854, that is from the time Sir Thomas Munro, Governor of Madras, ordered an investigation to be made into the state of indigenous education in this Presidency up to the organization of the Educational Department, which was the immediate result of the great Despatch of 1854. The second period extends from 1854 to 1871 the year of the passing of Acts III. and IV. of 1871,

which gave an immense impetus to Primary education by placing it under the direct control of Local Boards and Municipalities. The appointment of the Education Commission on the 3rd February 1882 undoubtedly marks a new era in the History of Education in India, and the year 1881, therefore, I have taken as marking the close of the third period. The fourth period, extending from 1881 to 1893, may be regarded as the period of reconstruction, and this period is coterminous with the administration of Mr. H. B. Grigg, C. I. E. I have dwelt at length on the important educational reforms initiated by him. Dr. Duncan, who was appointed permanently to the office of Director of Public Instruction in November 1892, had acted previously at different intervals for a period of three years in all, and the important measures introduced by him are also referred to in Section V. The last paragraph of this Section is specially taken up with a brief account of his administration, and thus brings the information contained in this work down to the present. My best thanks are due to Mr. V. T. Seshadra Chariar, B. A., Acting First Assistant to the Director of Public Instruction for writing this paragraph. I am also under great obligations to Mr. E. H. Elliot, B. A., Junior Professor of English, Presidency College, who has kindly looked over the greater portion of the proofs and has suggested many additions and alterations.

The statistical information has been carefully compiled, but I have, as far as possible, avoided introducing mere statistics into the body of the work, and have referred the reader to the tabular statements in the Appendix. The subject of Missionary education has been dealt with as fully as I could with the aid of official reports and records, supplemented by information from other sources, but I feel that I have not done full justice to this portion of the subject owing to the inadequacy of the materials at my command.

I am fully conscious of the imperfections of the work. As, however, it is the first work of the kind attempted by a native of India, and has been written in the intervals of professional duties, interrupted by serious domestic calamities, I look for indulgent treatment from the public.

S. SATTHIANADHAN.

PRESIDENCY COLLEGE, }
November, 1894. }

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HISTORY OF EDUCATION

IN THE

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

Section I.—Education in Madras Prior to 1854.

Prior to the organization of the Educational Department, which was the direct out-come of the Despatch of 1854, the efforts made by Government to improve education were spasmodic and wanting in thoroughness. Sir Thomas Munro was the first to draw the attention of the local Government to the subject of education. In a Minute recorded by him on the 25th June 1822 he says :—" Much has been written, both in England and in this country, about the ignorance of the people of India, and the means of disseminating knowledge among them, but the opinions upon this subject are the mere conjectures of individuals, unsupported by any authentic documents, and differing so widely from each other, as to be entitled to very little attention. Our power in this country, and the nature of its own municipal institutions, have certainly rendered it practicable to collect materials from which a judgment might be formed of the state of the mental cultivation of the people. We have made geographical and agricultural surveys of our provinces ; we have investigated their resources ; and endeavoured to ascertain their population ; but little or nothing has been done to learn the state of education." Sir Thomas Munro suggested in the Minute that the best information should be obtained of the actual state of

Sir Thomas
Munro's
Minute.

education throughout the country, and called upon the several Collectors to furnish lists of the schools in their respective Districts, the nature of education given in them, the number of scholars in each, and other matters of interest. It is noteworthy that in all the efforts made by Government, from the earliest period, to promote education, the most scrupulous regard was paid to the opinions and prejudices of the people on the subject. The principle of non-interference was strictly observed, and every possible attempt was made to secure the confidence and co-operation of the people in the practical measures adopted by Government. Sir Thomas Munro concluded his Minute thus :—" It is not my intention to recommend any interference whatever in the native schools. Everything of this kind ought to be carefully avoided, and the people should be left to manage their schools in their own way. All that we ought to do is to facilitate the operations of these schools by restoring any funds that may have been diverted from them, and perhaps granting additional ones where it may appear advisable." The Court of Directors highly approved of the inquiry set on foot by Sir Thomas Munro, and referring to the non-interference policy observed that " it was proper to caution the Collectors against exerting any fear in the people that their freedom of choice in matters of education would be interfered with," but that " it would be equally wrong to fortify them in the absurd opinion that their own rude institutions of education were so perfect as not to admit of improvement."

Returns of
the Collec-
tors.

The reports and returns of the Collectors, which it took two years to collect, shewed an aggregate of 12,498 schools containing 188,650 scholars, of whom 184,110 were males and 4,540 females. Out of the 12,498 institutions, 740 were returned as Colleges.

These were mainly vedic *patasalas*, which formerly formed a part of every *mantapam* or religious centre. Tanjore returned the largest number of institutions,—993, of which 109 were entered as Colleges. The entire population having been estimated at 12,850,941, there was approximately one school to every 1,000 of the population. Very few schools appear to have been endowed by the public, the majority of them being supported by the parents of the pupils. Brahmins were chiefly in charge of the vedic *patasalas*, and they generally held *Manniums*, &c., granted by the ancient Zemindars and by the former Governments for various reasons. The rate of payment for each scholar varied in different Districts and according to the different circumstances of the parents of the pupils, from one anna to four rupees per mensem, the ordinary rate among the poorer classes being generally about four annas, and seldom exceeding half a rupee. Teachers in general did not earn more than six or seven rupees monthly. The particulars relating to caste to which the pupils belonged are interesting. Of the 188,650 pupils, 13,561 were returned as Muhammadans, 42,502 as Brahmins, 19,669 as Vyasees, 85,400 as Sudras, and 27,518 as belonging to other castes. Comparing the above with the latest figures available, it is clear that the Brahmin community enjoyed the privileges of education to even a greater extent than they do at the present moment. Roughly speaking, to every seven caste and non-caste Hindu pupils under instruction at present in schools and colleges one is a Brahmin, although the Brahmin population is only one-twentieth of the native Hindu population; but at the time we are referring to one in every four Hindu pupils under instruction was a Brahmin.

We have unfortunately very little information as regards the quality of instruction imparted in indigen- Nature of Instruction.

ous schools. Only one or two Collectors referred to the subject in their reports. The Collector of Bellary, Mr. A. D. Campbell, who furnished most valuable information on the subject, wrote that the books in use in the Telugu and Canarese schools in the District were in verse and in a dialect quite distinct from that of conversation and of business. "The alphabets of the two dialects are the same, and he who reads one, can read, but not understand the other also. The natives therefore read these (to them unintelligible) books, to acquire the power of reading letters in the common dialects of business, but the poetical is quite different from the prose dialect which they speak and write, and though they read these books, it is to the pronunciation of syllables, not the meaning or construction of the words, that they attend. Indeed few teachers can explain, and still fewer scholars understand the purport of the numerous books they thus learn to repeat from memory. Every schoolboy can repeat verbatim a vast number of verses of the meaning of which he knows no more than the parrot which has been taught to utter certain words. Accordingly from studies in which he has spent many a day of laborious, but fruitless toil, the native scholar gains no improvement, except the exercise of memory and the power to read and write on the common business of life. He makes no addition to his stock of useful knowledge and acquires no moral impressions. He has spent his youth in reading syllables not words, and on entering into life he meets with hundreds and thousands of words, of the meaning of which he cannot form even the most distant conjecture; and as to the declension of a noun or the conjugation of a verb he knows no more than of the most abstruse problem in Euclid." The above description may be taken as typical of the instruction

imparted in all indigenous schools. The teaching was hardly of any practical value, except that the pupils acquired the first rudiments of arithmetic, and were able to keep accounts in the most mechanical way possible. The instruction in other subjects, it is needless to add, was of the most rudimentary nature, and, when it dealt with higher subjects, aimed at little more than the cultivation of the memory. Of the instruction in the so-called Colleges it is said :—“For twenty years the students commit to memory *mantra* after *mantra*, *sloka* upon *sloka*, comment after comment, until they are able to superintend every ceremony and perform every rite of the Yajur or Black Veda.” The teachers were generally indigent Brahmins, who were selected on account of their influence in the town or village in which the school was situated, without reference to qualifications.*

* Mr. A. D. Campbell, the Collector of Bellary, in his report, also gave some interesting facts relating to the internal working of the indigenous schools in his district. “The education of the Hindu youths generally commences when they are five years old; on reaching this age, the masters and scholars of the school to which the boy is sent, are invited to the house of his parents; the whole are seated in a circle round an image of Gunasee, and the child to be initiated is placed exactly opposite to it. The schoolmaster sitting by his side, after having burnt incense and presented offerings, causes the child to repeat a prayer to Gunasee, entreating wisdom. He then guides the child to write with its finger in rice the mystic names of the deity and is dismissed with a present from the parents according to their ability. The child next morning commences the great work of his education The internal routine of duty for each day will be found, with very few exceptions and little variation, the same in all the schools. The hour generally for opening school is six o’clock, the first child that enters has the name of Saraswatee, or the goddess of learning, written upon the palm of his hand as a sign of honour; and on the hand of the second a cypher is written, to show that he is worthy neither of praise nor censure; the third scholar receives a gentle stripe; the fourth two; and every succeeding scholar that comes an additional one. This custom, as well as the punishment in native schools, seems of a severe kind. The idle scholar is flogged and often suspended by both hands and a pulley to the roof, or obliged to kneel down and rise incessantly, which is a most painful and fatiguing, but perhaps a healthy mode of punishment.” “The first business of a child on entering school is to obtain a knowledge of the letters, which he learns by writing them with his fingers on the ground in sand, and not by pronouncing the alphabet, as among European nations. When he becomes pretty

Active mea-
sures adopted
by
Sir T. Munro.

Sir Thomas Munro was convinced of the unsatisfactory nature of education at the time, and he suggested certain active measures to improve the state of things. He proposed in his Minute, dated March 10th, 1826, the establishment of a school at the Presidency for the purpose of training and educating teachers to be employed in Government schools, and suggested that two principal schools should be founded in each Collectorate, one for Hindus, and the other for Muhammadans, and an inferior school eventually in each Tahsildaree. Each Collectorate was estimated to have about fifteen Tahsildarees. Sir T. Munro applied to the Court of Directors for an annual grant of Rs. 50,000 for these schools and pointed out that the expenses incurred by Government "would be amply repaid by the improvement of the country; for the general diffusion of knowledge is inseparably followed by more orderly habits, by increasing industry, by a taste for the comforts of life, by exertion to acquire them and by a growing prosperity of the

dexterous in writing with his finger in sand, he has the privilege of writing either with an iron style on cadjan leaves, or with a reed on paper. Having acquired a thorough knowledge of the letters, the scholar next learns to write the compounds, or the manner of embodying the symbols of the vowels in the consonants and the formation of syllabus, &c., then the names of men, villages, animals, &c., and lastly arithmetical signs. He then commits to memory an addition table and counts from one to one hundred; he afterwards writes easy sums in addition and subtraction of money, multiplication and the reduction of money, measure, &c. Here great pains are taken with the scholar in teaching him the fractions of an integer which descend, not by tens as in our decimal fractions, but by fours, and are carried to a great extent. In order that these fractions together with the arithmetical tables in addition, multiplication, and the three fold measures of capacity, weight, may be rendered quite familiar to the minds of the scholars, they are made to stand up twice a day in rows, and repeat the whole after one of the monitors. The other parts of native education consist in deciphering various kinds of handwriting in public, and other letters which the schoolmaster collects from different source, writing common letters, drawing up forms of agreement, reading fables and legendary tables, and committing various kinds of poetry to memory, chiefly with a view to attain distinctness and clearness of pronunciation, together with readiness and correctness in reading any kind of composition."

people.” He attributed the backward state of education to the absence of any sufficient encouragement given to educated men, and to the poverty of the people. It is note-worthy that the general impoverishment of the country came frequently to the notice of the authorities in those days. One of the Collectors, in his report, ascribes the poverty to the following causes :—“The masses of the manufacturing classes have been of late years greatly diminished by the introduction of our own European manufactures in lieu of the Indian cotton fabrics. The removal of many of our troops from our own territories to the distant frontiers of our newly subsidized allies has also, of late years, affected the demand for grain; the transfer of the capital of the country from the native Government and their officers, who liberally expend it in India to Europeans, restricted by law from employing it even temporarily in India, and daily draining it from the land, has likewise tended to this effect. The general part of the middling and lower classes are now unable to defray the expenses incident upon the education of their offspring, while their necessities require the assistance of their children as soon as their tender limbs are capable of the smallest labour.”

A Committee of Public Instruction (which was afterwards amalgamated with the College Board,* and was termed the Board of Public Instruction) was organized to carry out Sir T. Munro's scheme. The functions of the Board were to inform themselves fully of the state of education, to concert measures to improve education, and to direct and superintend public education. The first step taken by the Committee was to organize a school at Madras for the training of teachers. This institution supplied afterwards the

Board of Public Instruction.

* The College Board had for its chief object the instruction and examination of Junior Civil Servants in the Oriental and Vernacular languages.

basis of the Madras High School and ultimately developed into the Presidency College. In this Central Institution, which was under an English Headmaster, assisted by Pundits, who were connected with the College Board, arrangements were made for training and educating forty students as teachers, these candidates being procured from the Districts in which they were expected to serve. Each student was assigned a stipend of Rupees fifteen per mensem. The selection of the students was left to the inhabitants of principal towns in each district. The Committee considered it important that the Collectorate schools should be first supplied with teachers, and hence did not entertain the plan of training teachers for the Tahsildaree schools. Arrangements were made for teaching the Hindu students in the vernacular languages of the districts to which they belonged, while Muhammadans were taught Hindustani, Persian and Arabic. Provision was also made for the instruction of all the students "in the English language and in the elements of the European Literature and Science." The Board in all their communications to Government laid the greatest stress on securing the sympathy and co-operation of the people and were reluctant to bring forward any measures "at variance with the customs and prejudices of the people." In accordance with this policy the schools that were established were entirely under native superintendence. About 100 Tahsildaree and Collectorate Schools were eventually established. The study of English was confined only to the central Collectorate schools, and was of an elementary nature. In all the rest the instruction imparted was purely vernacular.

Despatch of
1828.

The Court of Directors fully approved of the enquiry set on foot by Sir T. Munro and the measures proposed and partially carried out by him, though they

regretted that the inquiry failed to elicit correct information as to the quality of instruction given in indigenous schools, the character of the books used in them, and “whether any desire exists among any portion of the natives for better instruction than what their own rude institutions of education afford, and how far they are disposed, or by what means they might easily be induced, to avail themselves of better schools, if any such should be established.” The Court also clearly pointed out that the success of the Schools established depended wholly on the employment of qualified teachers and on securing for the schools efficient and vigilant supervision. “A general superintendence,” observed the Honourable Court, “may be exercised at all times by the Collectors; but periodical examinations, conducted either by the local officers, or by persons sent from the Presidency, would be the most effectual means of compelling the masters to do their duty, and of encouraging the pupils by opportunities of distinguishing themselves and of attracting the notice of Government.”

Unfortunately these precautions were not heeded by the Board of Public Instruction, so strongly were they in favour of the non-interference policy. The consequence was rather disastrous, for in 1832 when a census of the Tahsildaree schools was taken, it was found that each school had not more than an average of 33 scholars, and the Board were compelled to admit that there was something radically wrong in the system on which the schools were conducted. The Board remarked:—“Either the teacher is not duly qualified for the office, or he is careless in the discharge of the duty belonging to it.” But they had no hesitation in admitting that the schools had suffered owing to the lack of efficient supervision. A resolution was passed by Government calling upon the Collectors to exercise a

Failure of the
Tahsildaree
and Collector-
ate schools.

more effectual supervision over the schools in their several Collectorates. But this resolution was ineffectual as the Collectors found it impossible to attend to schools in the midst of other and more pressing avocations of their office. Not only the Tahsildaree but the Collectorate schools proved a failure. The benefit derived from the schools was scarcely commensurate with the expense incurred. Just as the selection of the Tahsildaree teachers was left to the people themselves, the selection of the Collectorate teachers was left to the Collectors, the object of the Board being to secure for these schools men with local influence, who were able to secure the confidence of the native public. The consequence was that men were selected for the post who had no special qualifications. The Board also saw the folly of leaving the selection of teachers for training at the Central Institution in the hands of the native public. The men selected were inferior in every respect, and in 1832 the Board reported that none of the students that had entered since 1828 possessed the requisite qualification. Most of them on entering "were ignorant even of the character of their own native tongue and the greater number of them had arrived at too advanced an age." The class of Collectorate students, therefore, proved a most signal failure, while even as regards the extension of elementary education the Central School in Madras did not effect much.

Despatch of
1830.

In December 1830 the Court of Directors sent a very important Despatch to the Madras Government bringing to the notice of the latter the importance of providing for education of a higher order. In the Despatch the Court expressed their dissatisfaction at the measures adopted which had for their object only the extension of elementary education in the vernaculars and urged the necessity for promoting higher

education. The enlightened policy of the Court is noteworthy. "The improvements in education," they observed, "which most effectually contribute to elevate the moral and intellectual condition of a people, are those which concern the education of the higher classes; of persons possessing leisure and influence over the minds of their countrymen. By raising the standard of instruction among these classes you would eventually produce a much greater and more beneficial change in the ideas and feelings of the community, than you can hope to produce by actually directing on the more numerous class." It must not be understood from this that the Court discouraged the education of the masses; what they wanted was to place within the reach of the higher class of natives the highest instruction in the English language and in European literature and science, so as not only to improve the intellectual and moral condition of the people, but also to train a body of natives, qualified by their habits and acquirements, to take a larger share and occupy higher situations in the civil administration of the country. The Supreme Government had already adopted measures to effect this object in the sister Presidency of Bengal, and those measures had been attended with a great deal of success. The specific proposals made by the Court were to widen the scope of the Central School so as to provide higher instruction in the English language and European science, and eventually to establish English schools in the chief centres of the Presidency. Though strongly recommending the promotion of higher education, the Court at the same time were fully alive to the impossibility of diffusing education among the masses through any other medium than that of the vernacular languages.*

* The following is an extract from a Despatch which was addressed to the Bengal Government on the same date on which they ad-

Steps taken
by the Board
of Public
Instruction.

The recommendations of the Court do not appear to have met with much favour at the hands of either the Local Government or of the Board of Public Instruction. The difficulty of securing competent men was put forward as a serious hindrance to the adoption of the measures of the Honorable Court, and difficulties were also anticipated from the apathy of the natives and from their unwillingness to pursue their studies after having attained such an amount of knowledge as might qualify them for public employment. It was at the same time admitted that the desire of learning English had become very prevalent among all classes of the community. Four years elapsed before any definite measures were adopted, and it was only in 1834, when the attention of the Board was again directed by the Home authorities to the subject, that steps were taken to give effect to the Despatch of 1828. The Board now drew up an elaborate scheme. It was proposed (1) to remodel the Central School at the

dressed the Madras Government :—"While we thus approve and sanction the measures which you propose for diffusing a knowledge of the English language and the study of European science through its medium, we must at the same time put you on your guard against a disposition, of which we perceive some traces in the General Committee, and still more in the local Committee of Delhi, to underrate the importance of what may be done to spread useful knowledge among the natives through the medium of books and oral instruction in their own languages. That more complete education, which is to commence by a thorough study of the English language, can be placed within the range of a very small proportion of the natives of India; but intelligent natives who have been thus educated, may, as teachers in Colleges and Schools, or as the writers and translators of useful books, contribute in an eminent degree to the more general extension among their countrymen of a portion of the acquirements which they have themselves gained, and may communicate in some degree to the native literature and to the minds of the native community that improved spirit which, it is to be hoped, they will themselves have imbibed from the influence of European ideas and sentiments. You should cause it to be generally known, that every qualified native who will zealously devote himself to this task will be held in high honor by you; that every assistance and encouragement pecuniary or otherwise, which the case may require, will be liberally afforded; and that no service which it is in the power of a native to render to the British Government, will be more highly acceptable."

Presidency as a regular Normal Institution and place it under an English master; (2) to open a second English school at the Presidency under an English master; (3) to increase the number of Tahsildaree schools; (4) to introduce an improved series of class books; (5) to establish a provincial Board, consisting of European officials and native gentlemen, to supervise education in each district. The scheme, however, did not answer the chief object the Court of Directors had in view, inasmuch as it did not provide for the instruction of candidates in the higher branches of European literature and science, with a view chiefly to fit them for employment in the various departments of the public service.

The scheme of the Board was referred by the Government of Madras to the Government of Bengal for the opinion of the General Committee of Public Instruction in that Presidency. When the scheme was under reference, the Government of India had under consideration a very important question affecting the educational policy throughout India. Previous to 1835 the course of instruction followed in the principal institutions in Bengal was entirely oriental.* The principle acted on was that of encouraging Native literature and science and engrafting on them such improvements and such an amount of useful knowledge as could be introduced consistently with "the necessity of consulting the feelings and conciliating the confidence of those, for whose advantage the measures

The views of
the Supreme
Government
on Education
in General.

* When Bishop Heber visited the Government College at Benares, he found a Professor lecturing on Astronomy after the system of Ptolemy and Albunazar, and the majority of the scholars engaged in the study of Sanskrit Grammar, and on enquiry was informed that it had frequently been proposed to introduce an English Mathematical class, and to teach the Newtonian and Copernican system of Astronomy, but that the project had been abandoned "partly on the plea that it would draw the boys off from their Sanskrit studies, and partly lest it should interfere with the religious prejudices of the Professors."

of Government were designed." The educational funds were devoted chiefly to the support of oriental colleges, to the payment of stipends to the pupils who attended, to the publication of oriental works, both original and translations. The General Committee of Public Instruction in Calcutta were divided in their opinion as to the character of the instruction that should be imparted in the Government schools and colleges—whether it should be oriental or European, and the resolution of Lord William Bentinck of the 7th March 1835 finally set at rest the question in favour of the latter system. This is how the resolution runs:—"His Lordship in Council is of opinion that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India, and that all the funds appropriated for the purposes of education would be best employed on English education alone."

Macaulay's
Minute.

It can hardly be doubted that the decision arrived at by Lord Bentinck was entirely due to the famous Minute of Macaulay, which marks an era in the history of English education in India.* In this Minute, Macaulay, in his characteristic way, deals with every one of the arguments advanced by the advocates of the oriental mode of instruction. One of the chief arguments of the opposite side was that, under the Charter of 1813, the public faith was pledged to the prevalent system, and that a sum was set apart under the Charter, "for the revival and promotion of literature and encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories." Macaulay replied:—

"It is argued, or rather taken for granted, that by literature the Parliament can have meant only Arabic and Sanskrit literature,

* *Vide* Appendix A.

that they never would have given the honourable appellation of "a learned native" to a native who was familiar with the poetry of Milton, the Metaphysics of Locke, and the Physics of Newton; but that they meant to designate by that name only such persons as might have studied in the sacred books of the Hindus all the uses of cusa grass, and all the mysteries of absorption into the Deity. This does not appear to be a very satisfactory interpretation."

But even supposing that the grant of a lac of rupees was set apart for the encouragement of the study of Arabic and Sanskrit, should the grant be continued for the same purpose, those languages having become useless? "We found a sanitarium on a spot which we suppose to be healthy. Do we pledge ourselves to keep a sanitarium there, if the result should not answer our expectation? We commence the erection of a pier. Is it a violation of the public faith to stop the works, if we afterwards see reason to believe that the building will be useless?" As for the argument regarding the importance of the study of Arabic and Sanskrit Literature, Macaulay writes:—

"I have no knowledge of either Sanskrit or Arabic. But I have done what I could to form a correct estimate of their value. I have read translations of the most celebrated Arabic and Sanskrit works. I have conversed, both here and at home, with men distinguished by their proficiency in the Eastern tongues. I am quite ready to take the oriental learning at the valuation of the Orientalists themselves. I have never found one among them who could deny that a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia. The intrinsic superiority of the Western literature is, indeed, fully admitted by those members of the Committee who support the oriental plan of education."

Macaulay summed up in conclusion:—

"I think it clear that we are not fettered by the Act of Parliament of 1813; that we are not fettered by any pledge expressed or implied, that we are free to employ our funds as we choose; that we ought to employ them in teaching what is better worth knowing than Sanskrit or Arabic; that the natives are desirous to be taught English, and are not desirous to be taught Sanskrit or Arabic; that neither Sanskrit nor Arabic has any peculiar claim to our engagement; that it is possible to make natives of this country thoroughly good English scholars, and that to this end our effort ought to be directed."

Suggestions
of the Gov-
ernment of
India.

Though Macaulay's Minute had direct reference to education in Bengal, still it was not without its effects on education in Madras as well. The Madras Government was advised by the Government of India to expend Government funds almost exclusively on English education, and chiefly on higher English education. The Government of India at the same time did not discourage the cultivation of the vernacular languages. The masses they considered should be educated through the medium of the vernacular dialects. As regards the scheme of the Madras Board, which was referred to the Committee of Public Instruction at Calcutta, it was disapproved of generally by the latter and also by the Government of India. They considered the Tahsildaree and Collectorate schools in which rudimentary instruction in English was superadded to tuition in the vernacular dialects as nothing better than the existing village schools—a class of schools with which the Government, it was thought, should not have interfered. One of the main features of the Madras scheme, *viz.*, that of improving and encouraging by Government supervision and rewards the indigenous village schools was entirely misunderstood by the Supreme Government and was interpreted as a “tendency to repress the humble but voluntarily supported seminaries of the villages.” The Calcutta Council doubted also the propriety of opening two English seminaries in Madras: one a Normal school for training teachers, and the other a distinct English school for general pupils. They proposed, instead, a single English College at the Presidency, at an annual cost of Rs. 30,000, and ten Provincial Colleges at a total annual cost of Rs. 50,000. As it was found, however, that the Madras Government was unable to meet such a large outlay, it was proposed that the aid given to Tahsildaree and Collectorate schools should be withdrawn,

and that the Madras Board should concentrate all their available funds in the establishment of an "English College at the Presidency, either distinct from the Central school, or in connection with that institution," and that any surplus fund that might remain should be employed in providing competent English instructors in schools that might be established at the principal stations in the interior in communication with the Board of Public Instruction.

On the receipt of the Bengal Despatch in 1835, it was resolved to abolish the Tahsildaree and Collectorate schools, and to entrust the affairs of education to a new Board to be designated the Committee of Native Education. The Committee consisted of five members, with a Member of Council as President; the members being one of the Presbyterian Presidency Chaplains, the Mahratta Translator to Government, the Deputy Judge Advocate of the Presidency Division, the Honorable Company's Astronomer and the Honorable Company's Solicitor. In their instructions to the Committee, the Government made no mention of the English College proposed by the Government of India, nor of the necessity for providing the means of instruction at the Presidency in the higher branches of education, and the Committee was called upon only to recommend measures for the establishment of a Normal school at Madras for the training of teachers. The Committee made some elaborate proposals. Of these the most important were (1) the establishment of four English schools in the suburbs of Madras; (2) the establishment of a Normal class for training teachers in connection with the best school at the Presidency, whether a Government school or otherwise; (3) the establishment of a College, as soon as the materials for such an institution were to be procured; (4) the award of premiums to the teachers of the best con-

Committee of
Native Edu-
cation.

ducted schools. The only part of the plan which they recommended for immediate adoption was the first, *viz.*, to start four elementary schools. The establishment of either a Normal class or a College the Committee considered was premature, owing to the fact that "there were probably not a dozen natives who were capable of profiting by a College education, or to express it more definitely, who were capable of writing half-a-dozen sentences of idiomatic English on a given subject, or of reading a page of Milton with intelligence." It was proposed that each of the four elementary schools should have a European Head Master, with a salary of Rs. 130, Rs. 20 for house-rent and half the school fees, and a Native Assistant on a salary of Rs. 50, and that from each pupil a fee should be exacted of half a rupee per mensem, "to ensure regularity of attendance and keep up an idea of the value of education and to leave room for competition on the part of enterprising native teachers."

Lord
Elphinstone's
scheme.

The proposals of the Committee of Native Education did not receive any serious attention from Government and there was almost a complete suspension of educational measures until December 1839, when Lord Elphinstone succeeded as Governor. Just about this time the Government of India, presided over by Lord Auckland, had under consideration a scheme for the elementary instruction of the masses. The decision of Lord Auckland is worthy of note as it was in accordance with the downward filtration theory, which governed for a long time the policy of all the local Governments. Lord Auckland thought that the period had not arrived when the Government could join in attempts at instruction of the masses with reasonable hope of practical good. He considered that a scheme of general instruction could be perfect only as it comprehended a regular progressive provision for

higher tuition among the upper and middle classes. "There cannot," he wrote, "be a doubt of the justice of the opinion expressed by the Court of Directors that by raising the standard of instruction among these classes, we could eventually produce a much greater and more beneficial change in the ideas and feelings of the community, than we can hope to produce by acting directly on the more numerous class. It is not to be implied from this, that in my view elementary education for the mass of the people is a thing necessarily to be neglected or postponed for an indefinite period, but it will have been seen that the hope of acting immediately and powerfully on the mass of the poor peasantry in India is certainly far from being strong with me; and the practical question, therefore, to which I would endeavour before all others to give my attention is the mode in which we may hope to communicate a *higher* education with the greatest prospect of success." Referring to the Madras Presidency Lord Auckland said—"The Madras Presidency is remarkable in India as being that in which a knowledge of the mere English language is most diffused, among all who are attached in public or private capacities to European Officers; but comparatively little appears in any reports before me to have been done in order to make such a knowledge conducive to moral and intellectual advancement." Lord Elphinstone himself was a great advocate of higher education on Western lines. He entirely set aside the recommendations of the Committee for Native Education, as not being in accordance with the views of the Supreme Government, and elaborated a scheme of his own which has had a considerable influence on educational progress in this Presidency. The most important part of his scheme was his plan for the establishment of a central Collegiate Institution or University

which was to be under a President and fourteen governors of whom seven were to be natives ; one of the main features of the plan being that “ it should principally depend upon the co-operation of the superior classes of the Native community and should be maintained but in a partial degree from the Government funds.” The ‘ university ’ was to be divided into two departments, on the plan followed in the Scotch Universities,—a High School for the cultivation of English literature and the vernacular languages and the elementary departments of philosophy and science, and a College for the higher branches of literature, philosophy and science. Lord Elphinstone’s scheme involved the dissolution of the Native Education Committee and the abolition of the Central School at the College. The scheme was proposed in 1839 and in the course of the following year all the preliminary measures for the establishment of the High School department of the university were carried out. For the promotion of education in the interior Lord Elphinstone proposed the formation at some of the principal towns of superior schools, which might be eventually raised into colleges, each college becoming in time the centre of a circle of Zillah schools. The Provincial and Zillah schools were to be connected with the Madras University by the establishment of fellowships in the latter institution, to be competed for by the most advanced students of the Provincial schools. In these schools the English language was to be the medium of instruction, and an acquaintance with it an indispensable qualification for admission, subject to such relaxation at the outset as might be requisite. He accordingly recommended the establishment of four schools in the first instance at Trichinopoly, Masulipatam, Bellary and Calicut for the benefit of the Tamil, Telugu, Canarese and Malayalam Districts respectively.

The scheme for the formation of a University Board was fully approved by Government and in January 1840, the first Board was constituted with Mr. George Norton, the Advocate-General, a gentleman who had taken considerable interest in Native Education, as the first President. At the very outset the Board were asked to elaborate proposals for a central Collegiate Institution or University; they were also requested to frame a scheme of education for the whole Presidency. The Court of Directors regarded Lord Elphinstone's proposals regarding the Provincial schools as wanting in definiteness and they moreover did not approve of the Vernacular being neglected in these schools. "We entertain no doubt," remarked the Court of Directors, "of the desirableness of giving superior instruction in one or more of the native languages in use in the Madras Presidency concurrently with English, and we therefore direct that such instruction be adequately provided for in any plan for the establishment of the proposed seminaries." With reference to the scheme for the establishment of Provincial schools which was referred to the Board, the President drew up a plan for the establishment of a school at each of the stations named by his Lordship to be placed under the supervision of a Collegiate Board, consisting of the principal European and Native gentlemen at the station. Each Collegiate Board was to ascertain in the first instance what number of scholars were ready to enter the proposed school, and on the number of twenty being obtained, a Collegiate High School was to be formed, the Provincial Board applying to the University Board for masters and tutors. Mr. Norton dwelt fully on the difficulty of supervising efficiently these schools and urged the appointment of paid inspectors and the organization of a separate department of Government under a distinct Secretary for directing the entire

The University Board.

system of Government education. In July 1842 Government issued orders for the establishment of the four schools proposed. The University Board in issuing the circulars to the local Boards laid great stress on the principle of demanding fees and strongly opposed eleemosynary education. At the request of three of the Boards the fee proposed of Rs. 2 per mensem was reduced. It was also pointed out to one of the Boards that the projected schools should not be thrown open to all the classes, as it was the principle of the Court of Directors that the education of the higher classes should be first considered. In regard to the difficulties apprehended on the subject of caste, it was thought desirable not to be prematurely vigorous in enforcing even right principles of action; but that at the same time it should be explained to the natives of the district that every care was already taken at the central institution at Madras "to protect all classes from any possibility of real violation," and that it was not only unreasonable, but was impossible, to keep up any school in which the pupils were not to receive instruction in common. There was some difficulty at first about meeting the cost of these schools from the educational grant of Rs. 50,000 as other schemes were also under contemplation, one of them being the formation in the University of Collegiate classes in Medicine and Civil Engineering; but on the Board pointing out the importance of the Provincial schools, other measures were suspended rather than delay opening these schools. There remained, of course, the difficulty of securing competent men as Head Masters. A long and tedious correspondence took place on the subject between the Court of Directors and the Government, and between the Government and the University Board as to the amount of salary to be paid, and whether the teachers should be imported from England,

and in a Despatch from the Court of Directors, dated 28th August 1844, it was decided that the proposal to form Provincial schools should not be given effect to until competent teachers could be procured at Madras. The Honorable Court wrote:—"Masters from England or even from Bengal, unacquainted with the manners of the natives of the Peninsula, cannot, with benefit, be sent amongst them in situations where they have everything to learn and, where, it appears from the letter of the Government of the University school, they cannot depend upon any effective aid or support from the local authorities. This circumstance confirms us in the impression that the plan of the Committee in regard to these schools was premature." The functions of the University Board, as regards the establishment of Provincial schools, having been thus suspended, were shortly afterwards transferred by the Government to a new Educational Board, which was constituted under date the 28th June 1845, under the designation of the Council of Education.

The University Board, during the short time it was in existence, did however good work in connection with the "Madras University." The opening of the Madras University, the outcome of Lord Elphinstone's scheme, took place on Wednesday morning, the 14th April 1841, at the College Hall. His Lordship the Governor presided and there were present besides His Highness the Nawab of the Carnatic and suite, the Members of Council and the President and Governors of the institution, and a very large number of influential native gentlemen. Mr. Norton, as President of the Board, delivered an address in which he explained fully the scheme of the institution, the steps that had been already taken to give practical effect to it, and the way it was likely to benefit the native community. The following extract

The Madras
University.

from Mr. Norton's speech explains clearly the main features of the institution :—

“Its chief distinguishing features are that it calls forth and mainly depends upon the co-operation of the superior classes of the native community, that it is to be maintained, but in a partial degree from the Government Funds, and not at all from the charitable contributions of the public, that it is directed to the supply of a thorough measure of education in the higher and most useful departments of Science and Literature, and that, therefore, although it excludes no class or quality of the people, yet it obviously concerns most that order of the native public who have the means and leisure to profit by such instruction. The great practical results looked for are—the supply of a due proportion of our native fellow-subjects to serve their country in all the offices of the State, the capacitating them to attain a just share in the administration of its affairs, the qualification of others to engage in the most liberal departments of active life, and the cultivation of those faculties in others which may render them ornaments or benefactors to their native land.”

In his reply Lord Elphinstone dwelt upon the advantages of a liberal European education to the natives: “Parliament may direct a sum to be annually set apart for educational purposes; Governments may establish schools and colleges, and may do what they can to encourage the resort of youths to these institutions, but if the people of this country are unconvinced of the importance of education in the true sense of the word, not mere elementary instruction, but that mental training and culture which leads to higher attainments, it is vain to place those advantages within their reach—it is idle to declare their political equality—worse than idle to advocate their participation in political power.” Lord Elphinstone also dwelt on the need for a wide diffusion of Medical and Engineering sciences, subjects to which allusion had been made in Mr. Norton's speech. It would be seen, therefore, from the extracts from the speeches of Mr. Norton and Lord Elphinstone given above that the promoters of the scheme were guided by the principle that the

intellectual cultivation of the superior classes was of far greater importance than the education of the masses, or to use Mr. Norton's figure they believed that "the light must touch the mountain tops, before it can pierce to the levels and depths."

The scheme for the establishment of a University consisted, as has already been said, of two departments, namely, a High School and a Collegiate Department. Of these two departments only the former could be established at first. Mr. E. B. Powell, a Wrangler of the University of Cambridge, was appointed to the Headmastership of the High School. With the exception of the Rev. John Anderson, the Founder of the Free Church Mission Institute, who arrived in Madras in 1837, and to whose work reference will be made later on, no one, perhaps, has done so much for higher education as Eyre Burton Powell. Higher English education owed its initiation and consolidation to these two men. They were the pioneers who cleared the ground as well as the builders who laid solid foundations.

Previous to the formal opening of the High School, a Preparatory School had been opened to prepare students for admission into the High School. The latter commenced with 67 scholars. The scheme of studies included Grammar, History, Geography, Composition, Prose, Mental Philosophy, Mathematics, as far as Spherical Trigonometry, and the principles of Mechanics, Natural Philosophy, and the Vernacular languages. The majority of the scholars admitted at the opening were qualified only for the lowest classes, but the progress of some of them was very rapid and in the course of a few years several had entered upon the subjects originally prescribed for the Collegiate course. The number of students that took advantage of the institution was

The High School Department of the University.

however limited, and great difficulty was experienced in persuading the scholars to enter the higher classes. Out of 148 scholars that were admitted in the course of the first year, 48 left it during that period, and during the following ten years the number on the lists never exceeded 182. One of the reasons assigned for the paucity of pupils was the rate of fees charged, *viz.*, Rs. 4 per mensem for each scholar, which was considered too high a rate. There was, however, considerable difference of opinion on this point among the Members of the Board. On the one hand it was argued that the rate of fee demanded curtailed the usefulness of the institution in limiting the number of scholars, and on the other that any reduction in fees would result in the ingress of a large number of the lower classes, who would be satisfied with a mere elementary instruction such as would fit them for inferior situations under Government. The latter was the opinion of Mr. Norton, the President. Eighteen months after the formation of the High School, Lord Elphinstone left Madras. He had, previous to his departure, sanctioned the adoption of certain plans for the extension of the University Board, *viz.*, the formation of four Provincial schools, the establishment of educational test examinations, and the opening of Collegiate classes in Medicine and Civil Engineering in the University. The last proposal was the subject of a great deal of correspondence. The Marquis of Tweeddale, who succeeded Lord Elphinstone, referred the whole matter for the consideration of the Court of Directors, because the carrying out of the proposals involved an expenditure considerably in excess of the annual grant of Rs. 50,000. The entire suspension of the scheme was viewed by the Board as indicating a lack of interest in the University on the part of Government, and, as early as in 1842, in a letter urging the impolicy of delay in the establishment of the Provin-

cial schools, the University Board represented that if through any delay in carrying out the proposed measures, the native community "should be led (though erroneously) to surmise that Government is no longer favourable to their adoption, they could not but anticipate in the withdrawal of their confidence, results most disastrous to the cause of native education under this Presidency." In the course of a few months, the withdrawal of the senior pupils and a decrease in the number of scholars induced the Board again to address Government on the subject with a view to the adoption of measures calculated to revive the confidence of the native community in the stability of the institution. The Members of the Government differed as to the causes of the comparative ill-success of the High School. The Marquis of Tweeddale considered that it was premature to establish College classes before a sound practical system of education was established and appreciated by the native community, and he attributed the small success of the institution in attracting scholars, partly to the apathy of the native community and partly to the existence of other schools at the Presidency. He also observed that when the University was established the natives were expected to support it by sending their children to it and by pecuniary contributions and that in both these expectations the Government had been disappointed. One member concurred with the University Board in ascribing the depressed condition of the High School to the delay which had taken place in sanctioning the various measures that had been proposed and another agreed with the Marquis of Tweeddale in thinking that the "native community had not supported the University to the extent which the Government had been led to expect." In a Despatch, dated the 18th October 1843, the Court of Directors pronounced the proposals of

the University Board to be premature. "We think," said they, "that any proposals to establish Medical or Civil Engineering Colleges at this moment are unwarranted by the state of preparation in the native community, and that it will be quite time enough when, from amongst some hundreds of native young men, familiar with the use of the English language, and with various important branches of general knowledge, classes can be formed for the cultivation of professional and practical knowledge." The question of the slow progress of the High School was also dealt with by the Court of Directors, but the Board adhered to the opinion that it was attributable to the impression that the Government were unfavourable to the institution. Whilst this discussion was going on there was some misunderstanding between the Government and the Board. The Government objected to the wording of the Third Annual Report and the Fifth Annual Report was also objected to. These discussions, coupled with the fact that the Government had transferred to the Council of Education a considerable portion of the duties originally entrusted to the Board, served to confirm the impression previously entertained that the proceedings of the latter body were viewed with disfavour by the Government, and the Board were unanimous in attributing in some measure to the impression thus produced the indisposition evinced by a large body of the natives to take advantage of the Government Institution. In 1847, however, a Despatch was received from the Court of Directors in which orders were received for the dissolution of the Council and for the amalgamation of some of its members with the University Board. The Council of Education was accordingly abolished and its records transferred to the University Board. This was about the close of Lord Tweeddale's term of administration.

The Council of Education which only lasted for two years (1845—1847) did not do any practical work. The primary object of the appointment of this new Board was to organize and superintend certain public examinations of candidates for appointments in the public service and pecuniary rewards, a certain number of which was offered annually for public competition. The Council, seeing that the advantages of such examinations were only confined to the Presidency, suggested the establishment of nine Provincial schools, which, like those proposed by the Board, were to be placed under Local Committees. The course of instruction was confined to a sound knowledge of English and of one of the Vernacular languages, Arithmetic and the elements of Geography and History. The expenses of each of these schools was estimated at from Rupees 700 to 800 per mensem, the salaries being calculated from Rs. 100 to 400 per mensem. An interesting discussion arose as to the desirability of including instruction in the Bible in the English course. Pending the decision of the Court, regarding the introduction of the Bible, no steps were taken for the establishment of the schools, though the scheme proposed by the Council was approved of.

The Council
of Education.

The Marquis of Tweeddale drew up a very important minute on the subject of moral and religious instruction when the question of the introduction of the Bible in the proposed Provincial schools, as an optional subject, was under discussion. The following are extracts from the minute, dated 24th August 1846 (Ootacamund) :—

The Marquis
of Tweeddale
on moral and
religious ins-
truction.

“ In considering the important question of imparting education to the inhabitants of a country, the great object with a Government must always be to improve the moral character of the subjects over whom it rules ; whilst at the same time it offered facilities for the cultivation of their minds. And those who have been engaged in the spread of education on these principles, must have witnessed

the elevation of mind and character which attends such a combination of instruction. The value of religious and practical education, to fit our own countrymen for the various duties of life, has been established beyond all doubts, and the increasing exertion which is now making to rescue those living in the dark recesses of our great cities at home, from the state of degradation consequent on their vicious and depraved habits,—the offspring of ignorance and sensual indulgence, is the most convincing evidence of the importance attached to the moral character of all classes. I should infer that the ignorance and degradation of a great bulk of the inhabitants of this country requires a remedy as active, to be applied by a process as simple, in order to elevate them in the scale of human beings, as that needed by our unfortunate countrymen.

. The reports and complaints so constantly made to Government against the integrity of the native servants, are sufficient evidence that something is wanting to insure a faithful service from them. There is no doubt that they entertain the greatest respect and confidence in the word and integrity of an Englishman, they admire his character, his probity, and his sense of justice, they acknowledge his superiority over themselves, and they are grateful for the protection their property and person receive at their hands. The question naturally arises amongst the natives, and it must be as evident to them as it is to ourselves, that some superior agency is at work, which produces all the good qualities which they may try to imitate, but which few can acquire. I have no wish, as I believe it is not my duty, to encourage the conversion of the natives by the influence of Government. At the same time I can see no sufficient reason for objecting to the Bible being made a class book in her public schools. It is the only means I know of giving to the natives a practical knowledge of the sources from whence are all those high qualities which they admire so much in the character of those whom Providence has placed to rule over them; and I am satisfied that the object sought by the Government in the general extension of education, the raising up a body of upright as well as intelligent native servants, can only be fully attained, by combining general knowledge with sound moral instruction. I would therefore adopt the rule proposed by the Council, which recognizes the Bible as a class book in the Government schools—but at the same time leaves it free to the native student to read it or not, as the conscience may dictate or his parent may desire.”

The Court of Directors, however, vetoed the proposal. “We cannot,” they said, “consider it either expedient or prudent to introduce any branch of study

which can in any way interfere with the religious feelings and opinions of the people. All such tendency has been carefully avoided at both the other Presidencies where native education has been successfully prosecuted. We direct you therefore to refrain from any departure from the practice hitherto observed."

Sir Henry Pottinger succeeded the Marquis of Tweeddale in April 1848 and his attention was immediately drawn to the state of education in this Presidency. The number of scholars at the High School had gradually risen, and at the time of Sir Henry Pottinger's arrival it numbered one hundred and seventy. Sir Henry considered that the High School itself was utterly insufficient to meet the educational wants of the population. It must not be forgotten here that the University Board had carried out in the senior class of the High School a course of instruction in the higher departments of literature and science. Though in the opinion of the Council of Education the attainments of the High School students were pronounced superficial, still judging from the answers of the students that were published along with the report of the Board, there is not the slightest doubt that some of the students had attained to a high degree of proficiency in the departments of science and literature. In 1851 Sir H. Pottinger proposed a scheme which provided for the establishment of a Council of Education, the establishment of a Normal School in connection with the University, and of eight Provincial Schools at some of the principal stations in the mofussil, and the adoption of a system of grants-in-aid of the subscriptions raised by the inhabitants of populous villages, for the purpose of providing them with schoolmasters, and assisting in the erection of school buildings. He attributed the comparative failure of the High School entirely to the

Education under Sir Henry Pottinger's administration.

apathy of the native community, and it was principally on this ground that he proposed the formation of the Council. For the Provincial schools he advocated a lower standard of instruction than was originally proposed. "In these institutions," he observed, "useful knowledge and a moderate scale of general education should only be aimed at, without entering on the higher grades of learning or science, or introducing as a necessary ingredient the acquirement of refined literature." No change was to be made in the plan of the University of which the Collegiate department was to be brought into operation whenever the advancement of the scholars might be considered to justify it. The other members of Government did not quite fall in with the views of Sir H. Pottinger. Mr. Thomas one of the members emphasized the importance of vernacular education and was opposed to higher education. He drew up an able minute on the subject of education in which he touched upon several important points.* Mr. Elliot, the other member, concurred with Sir Henry Pottinger in the expediency of maintaining the plan of the University and of eventually establishing a collegiate department.

Reorganiza-
tion of the
University
Board.

Sir Henry Pottinger's scheme gave rise to a lengthy discussion among the Members of Council, but it was not till April 1852 that any effect was given to his proposals. He abandoned his plan of appointing a Council of Education and confined himself to re-organizing the University Board, which had become reduced to four members including the President. Thirteen new members were appointed, and Government informed the new Board that their attention was to be directed to the general question of education, as well as to the improvement of the institution immediately under their charge. The new Board entered upon

* *Vide* Appendix B.

their duties on the 2nd July 1852 and laid before Government a Minute, stating their views as to the measures which should be immediately commenced. The main points noticed by them were the establishment of public examinations for granting certificates of educational attainments ; the organization of High Schools and Primary Schools in the Provinces, and of Normal classes at the Presidency both English and Vernacular ; also the appointment of public examiners and of one or more Inspectors of Schools. The cost of the measures was estimated at about one lac and fifty thousand rupees per annum. In regard to the proposed Normal classes there was considerable difference of opinion among the members of the Board. The President, Mr. Norton, was opposed to their establishment chiefly on the ground that they were premature. The Government agreed with the majority of the Board as to the expediency of immediately establishing the proposed Normal classes, and ordered them to be carried out. The Government, however, considered the estimates of expenditure to be excessive and they ordered the Board to submit a revised plan and estimate. The revised scheme provided for the establishment of a Primary School and of a Collegiate Department in the Madras University in addition to the High School ; the formation of Normal classes both English and Vernacular, for the purpose of training teachers ; the appointment of paid public examiners to conduct annual examinations of candidates for Government rewards, and the introduction of the Grant-in-aid system to a limited extent. The establishment of a well-conducted elementary school as a feeder to the High School was also proposed, as the native school in Black Town which had been established a short time before, under the management of Pachaiyappa's Trustees, was found inadequate as a feeder. The subject of the formation of collegiate classes in literature and science

was also taken up in earnest, and the Board proposed the establishment of a collegiate department under four professors, one of whom should undertake Mathematical and Physical Science, the 2nd, History, Political Economy and Mental and Moral Philosophy, the 3rd, English Literature and English Composition, and the 4th, Law. The expenses of the University upon its new footing were estimated at about 50,000 Rupees per annum, and of the remaining Rs. 50,000, Rs. 30,000 were assigned for the establishment of the five Provincial schools and Rs. 20,000 for the application of the Grant-in-aid system to the improvement of existing schools.

The outcome
of the scheme
of the Uni-
versity Board.

The scheme when laid before Government was objected to by the Members of Council both on the ground of expenditure and on the ground that the proposal of the Board, so far as the Collegiate department was concerned, was premature. In consequence of these objections the formation of the Collegiate classes was in the first instance prohibited; but on a further representation from the Board, Sir Henry Pottinger, who had been favourable to their recommendations from the beginning took upon himself the responsibility of sanctioning the entire scheme, with the exception of the Law Class, which was referred to the Court of Directors for orders. The attention of the Board, while engaged in reorganizing the University, was drawn to an important question relating to fees. The rate charged, Rs. four per mensem, was considered too high, and it was considered that the ill-success of the High School in attracting any large number of scholars was due to this cause. A reduction was accordingly resolved on, and brought into operation from the 1st January 1853; the rate fixed being two rupees in the Collegiate department and High School and one rupee in the

Primary School. The reduction was followed by an immediate accession of some 50 scholars to the senior department.

Notwithstanding the reduction there was still some difficulty in filling the higher classes, and it was doubted even by Government whether, after all, the University had succeeded in producing any beneficial results. That the institution had not altogether failed in carrying out the object for which it was founded, was evident from various facts. In the first place, students who went through the higher classes obtained employment and promotion in the public service with great facility. In 1853, Mr. Arbuthnot reported that of the 36 scholars who had taken Proficient Degrees, 22 were then employed in various situations connected with the civil administration of the country, on salaries varying from Rs. 40 to Rs. 315 a month. One was Deputy Dewan under the Rajah of Travancore, on a salary of Rs. 300, seven held situations in the Educational Department, four of whom were in the University and in Pachaiyappa's institution, and one in the Cuddalore Provincial School, and four were merchants. Secondly, the men who had gone through a training at the University were looked upon by Government as superior morally to others who had had no such training. What Mr. Kerr in his review of public instruction in Bengal wrote about educated Bengalis applied to the educated class in the Madras Presidency as well. He wrote: "At our colleges and schools, the natives acquire to some extent the habit of truthfulness. English principles are engrafted in their hearts. They acquire also a taste for what is true and beautiful in speculation which, so far as it goes, is favourable to upright and honourable conduct. It may also be observed that it is becoming a point of honour with those natives who have received a good education to be more

The results of the University.

truthful and trustworthy than the uneducated classes. It would give them more pain to be detected in a falsehood or in very dishonest practices. A public feeling favourable to integrity is growing up among them. As yet the feeling may not be strong; but even in its feeble state it must be regarded as a good sign and as one of the noblest points of the education they are receiving." The value of the instruction imparted in the University was further attested by the reports of those gentlemen, unconnected with the institution, who from time to time had taken part in annual examinations. The attainments of the senior students in some of the branches of study were of a high order, the higher branches were not acquired at the expense of the lower. Above all there was an entire absence of "cramming" which is considered to be the evil in the present system of education. Mathematics was the subject in which the students were most successful, but the written answers to the questions on literature which are preserved in the reports of the University show that several of the students had acquired a perfect mastery of the English language. But Mr. Arbuthnot was of opinion that this was "in a great measure accounted for by the remarkable powers of memory, which frequently enable them to recollect long passages of the authors they have been studying, whether prose or poetry, and to write them down nearly word for word."

The University and Vernacular Education.

The vernacular department of the University was not worked very satisfactorily. Telugu, Tamil and Mahratta were taught only superficially. The main object, however, which the Government had in view was to raise up a class of good vernacular linguists, who, by the attainment of a thorough and critical knowledge of their own language, might as teachers in schools, or as the writers or translators of use-

ful books, be enabled to render their acquirements available to their countrymen, and in the words of the Court of Directors, "communicate to the native literature and to the minds of the native community that improved spirit which it is to be hoped they will themselves have imbibed from the influence of European ideas and sentiments." This object, however, was not realized, though a considerable portion of the time assigned to the vernacular studies was devoted to translation from and into English, and a prize was awarded each year for the vernacular exposition of a portion of a standard English author. The great difficulty was to secure competent vernacular teachers who were at the same time possessed of a sufficient knowledge of English. The appointment of a vernacular superintendent was proposed with a view to introduce an improved system of vernacular instruction and the establishment of a training class for vernacular teachers. Among the duties proposed for the vernacular superintendent was the preparation and supervision of translations of approved English works into the vernacular languages, and of the publication of an improved series of vernacular books. The University Board, however, were fully sensible of the poverty of vernacular literature and they pointed out to Government the difficulty of translating satisfactorily scientific and philosophic works. "In truth, only those English works," they reported, "which deal in simple narrative, in which little occasion arises for the use of abstract terms, which relate palpable occurrences, sometimes surprising, sometimes interesting to the feelings, sometimes ludicrous, appear to admit of efficient translations. At all events such are the only works which, in translation, are attractive. They are such as amuse the idle hour, and delight children until their minds become more highly cultivated. But they are not the kind of class books through which

it is desired to communicate *substantial knowledge*." Under these circumstances, it appeared to the Board that the course to be encouraged was that of "a *full and free exposition*, rather than a translation, of all the subject matter contained in any English work, by the assistance of, or entirely by, such natives as have attained a full comprehension of the subject matter, *and also a proficiency in the English language*." It would not be out of place here to draw attention to an important scheme drawn up by Lord Auckland on the subject of the preparation of vernacular class books. It was proposed by him, as far back as in 1839, that the Governments of the different Presidencies should "co-operate through the bodies charged with the control of public instruction under their superintendence, in the common object of aiding the preparation of any useful and comprehensive set of class books, to be afterwards rendered into the vernacular tongues of the several Provinces." The practical outcome of this scheme was, however, very disappointing.

Missionary
Education.

This chapter on the history of education in the Madras Presidency cannot conclude without reference to the educational work of Missionary Societies. With the exception of three Government institutions,—the Madras University and the provincial schools at Rajahmundry and Cuddalore and a few elementary schools supported by subscriptions in the Provinces, the education of the country was entirely in the hands of the Missionary Societies and the natives themselves. We have already referred to the unsatisfactory nature of indigenous education as developed by the natives. In the department of elementary instruction the operations of some of the Missionary Societies were on a very considerate scale. In 1854 the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign parts sup-

ported no less than 186 schools, the majority of which were in the Districts of Tinnevelly, Madura, Trichinopoly, and Tanjore. In these schools there were over 5,000 scholars of whom about 1,400 were girls. The amount expended by the Society in its educational operations, including the cost of erecting and repairing buildings, exceeded Rs. 40,000 in 1852, and Rs. 30,000 in 1853. The operations of the Church Missionary Society were equally extensive, especially in the Tinnevelly District. It is reported that at the commencement of 1852 the total number of Mission schools in this Presidency amounted to 1,185 with 38,005 pupils; while in the other Presidencies, where the Government schools were more numerous than here and more had been done in the higher branches of education, the aggregate number of Mission schools was only 472 with 26,791 children in attendance. In all the Vernacular Mission schools and in the majority of the English schools the course of instruction was altogether elementary, but Missionary operations were not confined to elementary education alone. The Rev. John Anderson, the earliest Missionary of the Church of Scotland, who arrived in Madras in 1837, started what was known as the General Assembly's School immediately after his arrival. In his first prospectus he expressed himself thus as to the object of this institution:—"The object is simply to convey through the channel of a good education as great an amount of truth as possible to the native mind, especially of Bible truth. Every branch of knowledge communicated is to be made subservient to this desirable end. . . . As soon as a proper class can be formed, the following branches will be taught: English, including reading, grammar and composition, writing and accounts; history, geography, arithmetic, mathematics and algebra; the elements of astronomy and political economy; logic, moral philosophy, and natural theo-

logy ; the evidences and doctrines of Christianity, &c." The school soon proved a great success and Mr. Anderson was so encouraged by the results that he opened branch schools at Conjeeveram in 1839, at Nellore and Chingleput in 1840, and at Triplicane in 1841. Considering that what was called the Madras University was established in 1841 and Pachaiyappa's College in 1842, there can be no doubt that we should regard John Anderson as the pioneer of higher education. The institution had to pass through more than one crisis owing to its Missionary character, but notwithstanding these difficulties, it continued very popular. It had, during the first few years of its existence, between 200 and 300 pupils. Mr. Anderson was soon joined by two other eminent men, the Rev. Robert Johnston and the Rev. John Braidwood. In 1847 the school was removed to a building on the Esplanade, where it has since remained and where it now flourishes as the Madras Christian College.

Section II.—Education From 1854 to 1871.

The Despatch of 1854 marks an era in the history of education in the Madras Presidency.* It has been called the Magna Charta of English education in India. “We have always looked upon the encouragement of education,” say the Court of Directors, “as peculiarly important, because calculated not only to promote a higher degree of intellectual fitness, but to raise the moral character of those who partake of its advantages, and so to supply you (Government of India) with servants to whose probity you may with increased confidence commit offices of trust Nor, while the character of England is deeply concerned in the success of our efforts for the promotion of education, are her material interests altogether unaffected by the advance of European knowledge in India : this knowledge will teach the natives of India the marvellous results of the employment of labour and capital, rouse them to emulate us in the development of the vast resources of their country, guide them in their efforts, and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce ; and, at the same time, secure to us a larger and more certain supply of many articles necessary for our manufactures and extensively consumed by all classes of our population, as well as an almost inexhaustible demand for the produce of British labour.” The Despatch also suggested as the means for the improvement and wider extension of education, both European and Vernacular, (1) the constitution of a separate department of the administration of education, (2) the institution of Universities at the presidency towns, (3) the establishment of

* *Vide* Appendix C.

institutions for training teachers for all classes of schools, (4) the maintenance of the existing colleges and high schools, and the increase of their number when necessary, (5) the establishment of new middle schools, (6) increased attention to vernacular schools, indigenous or otherwise, for elementary education, and (7) the introduction of a system of Grants-in-Aid. At the very outset it was stated emphatically that the education which the Court desired to extend in India was that which had for its object the diffusion of European knowledge. The Court at the same time laid stress on the education of the masses through the vernaculars. The English language was to be made the medium of instruction in the higher branches, and the vernacular in the lower. The system of grants-in-aid was to be based on the principle of perfect religious neutrality. Aid was to be given (so far as the requirements of each particular district as compared with others and the funds at the disposal of Government may render it possible) to all schools imparting a good secular education, provided they were under adequate local management and were subject to Government inspection, and provided that fees however small were charged in them. Grants were to be for specific objects and their amount and continuance to depend on the periodical reports of Government Inspectors. No Government colleges or schools were to be founded, where a sufficient number of institutions existed capable, with the aid of Government, of meeting the local demand for education ; but new schools and colleges were to be established and maintained where local efforts failed to meet the local demand. The discontinuance of any general system of education entirely provided by Government was anticipated with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid, but the progress of education was not to be checked in the slightest degree by the

abandonment of a single school to probable decay ; a comprehensive system of scholarships was to be instituted so as to connect lower schools with higher, and higher schools with colleges. Female education was to receive the frank and cordial support of Government. The principal officials in every district were required to aid in the extension of education ; and a person who had received a good education was to be preferred to one who had not, in making appointments to posts in the service of Government. Even in lower situations, a man who could read and write was to be preferred to one who could not, if equally eligible in other respects.

Before proceeding to mention the steps taken by the Madras Government to carry out the measures ordered in the Despatch of 1854, it is desirable to glance at the extent of the educational operations of Government in the year 1854-55. The towns of Cumbaconum, Bellary, Calicut and Rajahmundry had each a provincial school. The provincial school at Cuddalore was reduced to the grade of a Zillah School and two Zillah Schools were established at Chittore and Salem. The system of vernacular taluq schools, commenced during this year, contemplated the establishment of 100 such schools in various parts of the country. Over twenty schools of this type were opened during the year 1853-54. These taluk schools were intended to serve as model vernacular schools, an object to some extent frustrated by the introduction of the study of English. In 1853, Mr. G. N. Taylor, the Sub-Collector of Rajahmundry, had established an Anglo-Vernacular school at Narsapur, his head-quarters, and three branch schools in three towns in that neighbourhood. These schools were partly maintained by Mr. Taylor and partly by local subscriptions. In course of time, their successful working attracted the attention of the Government Schools in 1854—55.

neighbouring ryots, who applied to the Sub-Collector to establish vernacular schools in their villages, offering to defray the cost by a fixed annual addition to the revenue demand on their villages. In pursuance of this scheme schools were established in some central villages ; some of the larger schools were provided by Government with masters of a better kind than the ryots could pay for. These masters had to inspect all schools within a certain range, and there was a Native Inspector to superintend the whole. Speaking of this system in 1856-57, Mr. Arbuthnot, the then Director of Public Instruction, said, "the Rajahmundry system cannot be introduced into ryotwari districts upon the principle on which its introduction was sanctioned, *viz.*, that the rate shall be raised voluntarily, and it seems to be extremely doubtful whether even in Rajahmundry the rate can properly be called voluntary." A few schools were in existence in the Hill tracts in the Northern Circars. Lieutenant MacDonald, who afterwards became the Director of Public Instruction, took an active part in promoting education among the Khonds and Oriyas in the Northern Circars, and at his suggestion a few schools were established and an Inspector was appointed. The Madras University, under its able Principal, Mr. Powell, was continuing to do good work. The only deficiency in the instruction imparted was found to be a want of solid grounding in elementary subjects. The Principal in his report pointed out two defects in particular, defects which he thought were common in every institution :—*a want of distinctness of ideas, and an inaccuracy of language in replying to the question of the teachers.* "If," he remarked, "from the junior class of the primary school up to the most advanced in the high school, no obscure half-developed thought were allowed to pass, no ungrammatical phrase received, the senior students would certainly derive

much greater profit than they have hitherto done from the subjects to which they direct their minds, and their English composition would better stand comparison with that of the most highly educated youths in other parts of India." The Medical School, established in 1835, and raised to a College in 1851, had expanded into a more complete institution and was now designated the Madras Medical College. Mention should also be made of the Revenue Board Survey School which was established 50 years ago and was placed under the control of the Board of Revenue, with the object of training a number of surveyors. This school formed the nucleus of the College of Engineering. The School of Ordnance Artificers, which was established by Major Maitland, the Superintendent of the Gun Carriage Manufactory, in 1840, was reorganized and constituted a Government institution. The school was intended chiefly for the education of Eurasian Artificers. The Madras School of Arts, which owed its existence entirely to the active and disinterested exertions of Dr. Hunter, was first opened in 1850 in Black Town, of which district he was the Surgeon. The object of this school was to create among the native population a taste for the humanizing culture of the fine arts. This was followed in June 1851 by the establishment of the School of Industry, the object of which was, as stated by Dr. Hunter, "to afford to the rising generation of the country, the opportunity and means of acquiring useful handicrafts ; to improve the manufacture of various articles of domestic and daily use, now largely made in the country, but rudely and uncouthly ; and also, by developing the latent material resources of the country, to create a local supply of several articles in general demand, which hitherto have been almost entirely imported,—a further object being to improve the taste of the native public and make

them familiar with beauty of form and finish in the articles daily in their hands and before their eyes." The progress of both these schools was most satisfactory and they were amalgamated and constituted a Government institution. Dr. Hunter was the first head of this institution.

Steps taken
to give effect
to the Des-
patch of 1854.

Shortly after the receipt of the Despatch of 1854, the Government of Madras applied for authority to create the agency which was considered necessary for the superintendence and direction of education. After some correspondence a Director of Public Instruction, 4 Principal Inspectors of Schools, 20 Zillah Visitors, and 60 Sub-Assistant Inspectors were sanctioned. Only three Inspectors were appointed at first and the first Director of Public Instruction was Mr. A. J. Arbuthnot, afterwards Sir Alexander Arbuthnot.

The important operations of Government during the year 1855-56 in the Department of education were as follows :—

1. The reorganization of the principal Presidency Institution under the designation of a Presidency College.
2. The establishment of a Government Normal School.
3. The Provincial Schools.
4. The commencement of a system of Anglo-Vernacular Zillah Schools.
5. The commencement of a system of Vernacular Taluk Schools.
6. The extension of the measures for the promotion of education in the district of Rajahmundry.
7. The progress of the schools established for the instruction of the Khonds and other uncivilized tribes in the Hill-Tracts of the Ganjam.

8. The introduction of the Grant-in-Aid system.
9. The annual examination for Government Rewards.
10. The provision of Vernacular School Books.

The Honorable Court of Directors were not at all Presidency College. satisfied with the work done by the so-called Madras University, and were of opinion that it should be constituted a Presidency College on the same model as the Presidency College of Calcutta ; for they wanted an institution “in which the various objects of education may be combined and complete courses of instruction appointed, by means of which the students may be brought to the highest point of attainment both in general and special branches of study.” The original scheme for the establishment of the College was a very elaborate one. It was to have consisted of four branches or departments, General, Medical, Legal and Civil Engineering. But it was thought premature at first to give effect to this elaborate scheme. Hence it was proposed to have the general branch, consisting of a senior and junior department, with only a Law department attached to it. The union of the Medical College and Civil Engineering College was found impracticable for want of a suitable building. Among the changes that were introduced in the year 1855 were the alteration of the name of the Institution from Madras University to Presidency College and the appointment of a Professor of Law. Provision was made subsequently for the establishment of a Professorship of Vernacular Literature and another of Moral and Mental Philosophy and Logic. Mr. Powell continued to be in charge of the Institution. The course of instruction in the General Branch of the senior department included English Literature, History, Moral Philosophy, Political Economy, Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. In the Junior department the curriculum embraced Grammar, English Reading and

Writing, Geography, Elementary History, English Composition, Geometry and Algebra. In both departments a portion of the time was allotted for the study of the Vernacular Languages. The Legal Branch was opened in August 1855 and the course of instruction comprised extended to over three years.

Government
Normal
School.

One of the most important measures of the year 1855-56 was the establishment of the Normal School for training teachers. The Normal class which was established in connection with the Presidency institution in 1853 proved a total failure, for the object of training was not kept distinct from that of imparting general instruction. The object of the Normal School which was established in 1856 was twofold :

1st, to provide competent teachers for employment in Anglo-Venacular Schools.

2nd, to provide teachers competent to take charge of Elementary Vernacular Training Schools.

A European Principal was appointed in charge of the institution. The instruction both in the art of teaching and in the subjects which the future masters were expected to teach was given in English, but a certain portion of each day was devoted to the study of the Vernacular languages, with the view of enabling the students to impart the knowledge they were acquiring, both of matter and method, through the medium of their own languages as well as in English. The technical instruction in the art of teaching was imparted by means of oral lectures on the subject, delivered by the Principal, and by practice in the classes of the Primary School. Lessons were given in the presence of the students and criticism lessons were also delivered regularly.

Provincial
Schools.

The schools at Combaconum, Calicut, Bellary and Rajahmundry were continued under the designation

of Provincial schools, and it was the intention of Government to raise them eventually into Provincial Colleges, after the model of the Mofussil Colleges in Bengal. The most successful of these schools was the Provincial School at Combaconum, both as regards the number of pupils and the progress made. It was established in October 1854. A few Zillah schools were also opened at Chittoor, Salem, Madura and Berhampore. English and Vernacular were both taught in these schools, but the standard of instruction in English was not as high as in the Provincial schools. The medium of instruction was English. The chief object of the Taluk schools was the extension and improvement of Vernacular education, but arrangements were also made for English education of an elementary nature in those places where there existed a strong desire for the acquisition of that language. In addition to the Taluk schools in the Northern Circars, similar schools were opened in Tanjore, Madura and South Arcot. The course of instruction comprised Reading, Writing, Arithmetic after the English method, and Geography. The medium of instruction was purely vernacular. These schools were intended to serve as models of what vernacular schools ought to be, and the Inspectors were instructed not to give any undue prominence to the study of English in the school course. In working these Taluk schools some difficulty was experienced owing to the apathy of the natives on the subject of vernacular education, for the notion prevalent even then was that a knowledge of English was the one indispensable qualification for advancement. One of the Inspectors reported that throughout his division the desire for what the natives designate as an English education "is intense and is daily becoming more so, and that it exists not only in populous towns, but in villages also." The schools established in the Rajahmundry District were even of

a more elementary character and were the first attempt made by Government for the extension and improvement of indigenous education in the Presidency. Much opposition was encountered from the Khonds and Ooreyas, but the schools specially started for them proved beneficial to some extent.

Grants-in-Aid.

One of the most important effects of the Despatch of 1854 was the introduction of the Grant-in-Aid system. In August 1855 the first Grant-in-Aid rules for Madras were published. The conditions of aid were neither many nor complex. The grants were made with a special view to the extension and improvement of the secular education of the people, and were given impartially to all schools, whether male or female, Anglo-Vernacular or Vernacular. An essential condition of aid was that the schools should be under the management of one or more persons, who, in the capacity of proprietors, patrons, trustees or members of a committee, were required to undertake the general superintendence of the school, and to be answerable for its permanence for some given time. No grant was to exceed the amount of funds raised from local or other sources for the purposes for which the grant was sought. The levy of a certain rate of fees was also insisted on as a condition of aid in all except Female and Normal schools. The specific objects of aid were :—

1st.—The erection, enlargement, or repair of school-buildings.

2nd.—The provision of school furniture.

3rd.—The augmentation of the salaries of the teachers, or provision of additional teachers.

4th.—The provision of stipends for pupil teachers, and of gratuities of teachers who undertake to instruct them.

5th.—The provision of school-books, maps and

school apparatus at reduced prices according to the circumstances of the case.

The following were the conditions upon which grants were made for the objects above specified :—

“ 1st. It will be a condition of all Grants towards the
“ erection, enlargement, or repair of School buildings,
“ that such rules as shall be laid down in regard to the
“ dimensions and arrangements of the School build-
“ ings, with reference to the number of Scholars they
“ are designed to accommodate, shall be duly observed,
“ and that the permanent assignment of the buildings
“ for School purposes shall be adequately secured.”

“ 2nd. Applications for Grants for the provision of
“ School furniture must be accompanied by a decla-
“ ration on the part of the applicants that they will
“ be personally responsible for the due preservation
“ of the furniture of the School, and for its being
“ reserved for the purposes for which it is supplied.”

“ 3rd. Applications for Grants in augmentation of
“ the salaries of teachers or for providing additional
“ teachers, like other applications for aid, will be
“ referred to a Government Inspector, for report, on
“ the merits of the School and qualifications of the
“ teachers, and their continuance will depend upon
“ the periodical reports of the Inspector on the merits
“ and proficiency of the teachers, as ascertained at
“ his periodical examinations of the School.”

“ 4th. Grants for the payment of stipends to pupil
“ teachers will be made only to those Schools in regard
“ to which the Inspector may report that the master
“ is competent to instruct such pupil teachers; and
“ the continuance of such stipends, as well as the
“ amount of gratuities, to be assigned to the masters
“ for the instruction of the pupil teachers, will depend
“ upon the proficiency of the latter.”

“5th. Grants of School books, maps, or apparatus at reduced prices will be accompanied by the condition that the books shall be appropriated *bonâ fide* to the use of the masters and scholars, and that due means shall be taken for their preservation.”

Grants were also given in aid of scholarships and of stipends for Normal students, the rules for which, however, were notified later on. In the year 1855-56, Grants-in-Aid to the extent of Rs. 11,605 were given. It is interesting here to note that one of the first Grants-in-Aid in this Presidency was a building grant of Rs. 7,000 to the Harris school,—a school started in Madras by the Church Missionary Society for Mussulmans exclusively. The remaining Rs. 4,605 were spent in the shape of salary-grants.

Missionary Education.

It would not be out of place to glance briefly at the extent of Missionary operations in the cause of education during the year 1855-56. In the Ganjam District the London Missionary Society maintained an English school at Chicacole. There was also another school at Chatterpore, in the same district, which was mainly supported by the rent of a house given for the purpose by Mr. Onslow, the Collector. The London Mission had an English school at Vizagapatam. A female school was also supported by the London Mission in the same town. The Church Missionary Society had two schools—one for boys and one for girls—at Masulipatam, and one for boys at Ellore. Referring to the boys' school at Masulipatam the Director wrote:—“The boys' school has long had the reputation of being the best in the Northern Circars.” The American Missionary Society was at work at Guntur and at Goorzul in the Palnad, in which places they had two elementary English schools. The Nellore District was occupied by the Free Church Mission,

a good English school having been for some years in operation at Nellore, while another was also established at Gudur. In the districts of Cuddapah, Kurnool and Bellary, the London Missionary Society was at work. The Mission had a few elementary English schools and a large number of Vernacular schools. Elementary English schools started by the Free Church Mission were at work in the Chingleput District, at Chingleput and Conjeeveram. A good English school was started by the S. P. G. at Tanjore, where it had also a Vernacular Girls' school. The same Mission had a seminary for Native Christians at VEDIARPOORAM. The Wesleyan Mission was also at work in the Tanjore District, and had elementary English schools at Mannargudy and Negapatam. An English school was established by the S. P. G. at Trichinopoly. The operations of the C. M. Society and the S. P. G. were on a very considerable scale in Tinnevely. The former had English schools at Palamcottah and at Streeverilipoor, and maintained 317 elementary Vernacular schools containing 7,802 pupils, of whom 5,116 were Christians and 2,686 Hindus. The Society had also a training institution at Palamcottah. The S. P. G. maintained a considerable number of elementary schools both in Tinnevely and Madura. The same Society had an elementary English school at Ramnad and a seminary for the instruction of catechists and teachers at Sawyerpuram, somewhat similar to that at VEDIARPURAM in Tanjore. The German Missionaries were at work in Malabar, and at Tellicherry they had an Anglo-Vernacular School. The Roman Catholic Mission had an elementary English school for the children of the Roman Catholic community in Canara. In Madras four Missions were engaged in educational work,—the Wesleyan Mission, the London Mission, the Free Church and the Church of Scotland. In the Free Church Mission schools in Black Town the number of

pupils amounted to 627, of whom 242 were girls. In the schools belonging to the Church of Scotland Mission, 533 pupils were under instruction, of whom 358 were girls. It will be seen therefore that even as far back as the year 1854-55 the Province was covered over with a net work of Mission schools, English and Vernacular. The Rev. John Anderson, the founder of the General Assembly's School, which, from 1847, was known as the Free Church of Scotland Mission Institution, died at his post in Madras on the 25th of March 1855. He had brought his school to a high degree of efficiency and it served as an object lesson to similar institutions. The services rendered by "Anderson's School." to the cause of higher education can hardly be overestimated, and it is this institution that now, as the Madras Christian College, still takes the lead in higher education.

Other effects
of the Des-
patch.

One of the effects of the Despatch of 1854 was the institution of a system of public examinations for Government rewards. These examinations were instituted with the object of giving an impetus to education by holding out the prospect of employment in the Public Service to the educated classes, and so improving the qualifications of men in the Public Service. This system of examinations did not prove a success. There were, however, indications to show that English education had begun to take root in the soil. Some efforts were made by the educated classes to supplement their school instruction by the institution of libraries, discussion classes, and public lectures. Government undertook the publication of certain textbooks, chiefly in the Vernacular, and also subsidized liberally the Madras School Book Society. This Society, though established as far back as in 1820, existed merely in name until 1857, when its operations were revived. A weekly newspaper in Tamil and Telugu, under the editorship of the Professor

of Vernacular literature in the Presidency College, was established. There were also some other changes that may be regarded as the indirect effects of the Despatch. The Medical College was transferred to the Educational Department in June 1855. Major Maitland's School of Ordnance Artificers was also constituted a Government institution. An instructor in Fine Arts was appointed to aid Dr. Hunter in the Artistic Department of the School of Industrial Arts.

Between the years 1855 and 1858, the policy of Government, in the extension of education in this Presidency, was determined by the general principles laid down in the Despatch of 1854. The most important event during this period was the establishment of the University of Madras, which gave a very great stimulus to higher collegiate education. The progress made in education in general during this period was also considerable, as will be seen from the following statistics. In the year 1855-56, there was one college maintained by Government with an attendance of 302 pupils, while the number of Government Provincial and Zillah schools of the higher classes was 7 with 1,062 pupils; there were besides about 20 Government schools of the lower class in different parts of the Presidency, with a total strength of 1,028 pupils. Of this number, however, only 237 were receiving instruction in English. There were 14 private schools of the higher class under Government inspection attended by nearly 1500 pupils. The majority of the schools were under Mission management. The actual number of private institutions under Government inspection is not known; but the number was probably more than 50. The attendance in them amounted to nearly 3,000. A sum of Rs. 11,605 was received in 1855-56 as Grants-in-Aid by private institutions. In 1858-59 the number of Government colleges and

Progress of
Education
between 1855
and 1858.

schools alone was 122 with a strength of 7,128 pupils, and the number of aided colleges and schools was 225, of which 216 were maintained and managed by Missionary societies. Besides these, there were 102 unaided schools under Government inspection. The total number of pupils in non-Government institutions was 13,873. The amount of grants made, exclusive of building grants, during the year, was Rs. 26,035. There was of course considerable diversity in the quality of the instruction imparted. It ranged from that of the elementary village schools in which instruction was confined to reading, writing in the vernacular language of the district, the first four Rules of Arithmetic and, perhaps, the Outlines of Geography, to that of the Presidency College, in which it embraced a comprehensive course of English and Vernacular literature, History, Moral Philosophy and Mathematics. In the Provincial and Zillah schools, supported by Government, and in those supported by private societies, the education imparted was mainly through the medium of English, while in the taluk and village schools the education was through the medium of the vernaculars. Vernacular education, however, was not so popular as English education, owing to the widespread belief that a knowledge of English was the surest passport to official employment. In all the schools, both Government and private, the great want was that of well qualified teachers. The number trained at the Government Normal School at Madras was not adequate for the demand, but a commencement was made in the direction of supplying trained teachers by the leading educational societies. A vernacular training school was established by the Church Missionary Society at Palamcottah in 1856, and the S. P. G. trained teachers both at Sawyerpuram and VEDIARPURAM.

Establish-
ment of the
University of
Madras.

The University of Madras was incorporated by an Act of the Legislative Council of India, dated the 5th September 1857. This institution, like the sister institutions at Calcutta and Bombay, was framed on the model of the University of London. In the words of the Act, it was established "for the purpose of ascertaining, by means of examination, the persons who have acquired proficiency in the different branches of literature, science and art, and of rewarding them by academical degrees as evidence of their respective attainments." Its function in fact was to hold examinations for degrees and honours in the several faculties or branches of knowledge, which come within its scope, *viz.* (1) Arts, (2) Law, (3) Medicine, (4) Civil Engineering. The Senate was appointed in March 1857, but the bulk of its labours, in the work of framing regulations and bye-laws, fell within the year 1857-58. There was some difference of opinion as regards the necessity for an entrance examination and the adoption of the system of affiliation. In favour of affiliation the following arguments were strongly urged:—"In the present state of education in India, where good schools are not numerous beyond the chief towns of each Presidency, and where knowledge is valued almost solely for the sake of the employment to which it may lead, it would be a great error for the University not to employ its influence in establishing correct views of the nature of real education and in furthering the progress of such education as far as it possibly can It is desirable, therefore, to limit the privilege of securing degrees to institutions in which an efficient system of education is carried out, such institutions alone being publicly recognized as constituents of the university." The plan of affiliation was not, however, adopted as it was thought that the mere institution of the University examinations and degrees would

fully meet the object for which the process of affiliation was proposed. Two examinations were prescribed for the Arts degree, the Entrance and the B.A. degree examination. For the latter, Language, History, Mathematics and Moral Philosophy were compulsory, and, as a fifth subject, option was given to candidates to select one of the following :—(a) Natural Philosophy ; (b) The Physical Sciences ; (c) Logic and Mental Philosophy. Every candidate for the degree of Bachelor of Arts was required to have completed three years from the time of passing the entrance examination. In the Faculties of Law and of Medicine the regulations passed by the Senate did not differ materially from those adopted at Calcutta. In the faculty of Civil Engineering, the Senate provided for two degrees being conferred, *viz.*, that of Graduate in Civil Engineering or G. C. E. and that of Master in Civil Engineering. The institution of a degree in Engineering brought into operation the long projected Civil Engineering College in 1858, the Survey School, formerly attached to the Board of Revenue, and subsequently to the Chief Engineer's Office, having been adopted as its basis. The plan upon which it was originally proposed to establish the Engineering College, *viz.*, that it should provide instruction for all grades of the Public Works Department, except officers of the Corps of Engineers and Civil Engineers educated in England, was abandoned on financial grounds, and it was determined at the outset to confine the object of the College to training candidates for the grades of Sub-Overseer and of Assistant Overseer. The first Entrance examination of the University of Madras was held in September 1857. Forty-one candidates presented themselves of whom thirty-six passed. The first examination for the degree of B. A. was held in February 1858. Only two candidates appeared, both from

the American Mission Seminary, Jaffna, and both passed.

During the period referred to above the Grant-in-Aid system was resorted to considerably for the extension of education throughout the country. The great advantages of this system were considered to be (1) the economy with which it could be worked, as compared with the direct system of maintaining Government schools, (2) the avoidance of all difficulties in connection with religious instruction, and (3) the avoidance of interference with the educational operations of Christian Missionaries, "which it would be neither right nor politic to ignore, and which would be seriously impeded by the general establishment of Government schools, in the localities in which these operations are carried on"; (4) the advantage it has of calling forth local efforts and investing the adult portion of the population, as well as the rising generation, with a direct and practical concern in the instruction of the latter. For these reasons the system was considered specially adapted to a country like India, where instruction had to be provided for a teeming population scattered over extensive tracts, where the funds at the disposal of Government were but limited, and where the religion of the Government differed from that professed by the great majority of its subjects. At the same time it was considered undesirable to rely upon this system wholly for the extension of education, as in that case the progress of education would be very slow. The system pre-supposed a desire for education on the part of the people and a willingness to make sacrifices for the sake of obtaining it, which in many parts of the country had no existence. It was determined therefore to continue the maintenance of Government schools to serve as pioneers and as models to be

The Working
of the Grant-
in-Aid
system.

followed and eventually to be superseded by others established on the Grant-in-Aid system. Notwithstanding the determination of Government to give the Grant-in-Aid system fair play very little advantage was taken of it at the outset by the natives. The Grant-in-Aid rules of 1855 were found defective in some respects. They did not specify by what considerations the exact amount of the grant was to be determined; they did not define what qualifications should be required nor did they note what deficiencies should be deemed to be a bar to any grant at all. A new code came into operation therefore in 1858, under which the conditions were elaborated especially as regards salary grants, which were to be determined by a system of certificates of which there were nine grades for school-masters and five for schoolmistresses. These certificates were awarded on the results of a departmental examination calculated to test the general attainments of the candidates as well as his teaching power. The amount of grant was not to exceed one-third of the salary. This condition, by raising the qualifications of the teachers, added *pro tanto*, to the efficiency of the schools as well.

Despatch of
1859.

An important Despatch was issued by the India Office on the 7th of April 1859,* in which was instituted an examination into the operation of the orders dispatched in 1854 for the promotion of education. Such an examination was considered necessary as the more recent measures of Government for the promotion of education were alleged to be among the causes that had brought about the outbreak in the army of Bengal. A general survey was taken of the progress of education throughout India since 1854, and the several principles laid down in the Despatch of 1854 were reiterated and confirmed. The Grant-in-Aid

* *Vids* Appendix D.

system was the subject of special consideration. The Despatch, while it recorded with satisfaction that the system of Grant-in-Aid had been freely accepted by private schools, both English and Anglo-Vernacular, noted that the native community had failed to co-operate with Government in promoting elementary vernacular education. The efforts of educational officers to obtain the necessary local support for the establishment of vernacular schools under the Grant-in-Aid system were thought likely to create a prejudice against education, to render the Government unpopular and even to compromise the dignity of Government. The soliciting of contributions from the people was declared inexpedient, and strong doubts were expressed as to the suitability of the Grant-in-Aid system for the supply of vernacular education to the masses of the population. Such vernacular instruction should, it was suggested, be provided by the direct instrumentality of Government by means of a compulsory rate. The policy of perfect religious neutrality was re-emphasized. One of the questions noticed in the Despatch of the Home Government and the Government of India had reference to the alleged existence of misapprehension on the part of the people in regard to the intentions of Government in their measures for the extension of education ; and enquiry was made whether any alterations in existing arrangements were deemed advisable to introduce, with the view of lessening the risk of such misapprehension. The following was Mr. Arbuthnot's reply :—

In reply to this enquiry, I would observe that, in some Districts and by certain classes, there has been a certain degree of misapprehension regarding this, as there is in regard to every new measure which the Government carries out. It is only a few months since a rumour was spread and was very generally accepted among the lower classes of the native community of Madras, that the success of the Pier,

which has been lately commenced, was to be secured by the sacrifice of one hundred native children. If such a rumour can gain credence at the chief Presidency town, which has so long been the settlement of a large European population, where the people, consequently, have had better opportunities than elsewhere of acquiring an insight into European manners, and into the principles on which our Government is conducted, and where the advantages of Western literature and science have long been made available to large numbers of the native community,—it is not to be wondered at, that in more remote districts, where the inhabitants have enjoyed but few of these advantages, the establishment of schools by Government should be viewed in some quarters with distrust and dislike; the more especially, when it is remembered that in every village and, certainly, in every town of any size, there are numerous and influential classes, whose interest it is to perpetuate the existing state of things. One fact is deserving of notice that the opposition, whenever it has been manifested, has been invariably to the establishment of vernacular schools. The establishment of an English school is always welcomed, and, in most parts of the country, is eagerly sought. The opposition to vernacular schools where it has existed, is to be accounted for, partly, by the not unnatural hostility of the old race of village school-masters, who felt that their domain was being invaded, but principally, I am disposed to think, by the inability of the people to appreciate the motives of Government in seeking to instruct and enlighten them, irrespectively of the convenience of the European Officers of Government. For English instruction, they can assign a reason which is obvious and tangible, and is, therefore, in their estimation, satisfactory. English is the language of their Governors; and viewing it merely as a matter of convenience they are able to understand why the Government are desirous to extend a knowledge of it among their native subjects. They see, moreover, that its acquisition brings advancement in the public service; and, overcoming any prejudices, which might otherwise have been allowed to operate, they flock to English schools, whether they be Government schools or Mission schools, in most cases regardless of any other considerations than the efficiency or otherwise of the instruction, and the smallness of the cost at which it can be obtained. When the system of examinations for admission into the public service, which has been recently

introduced, and in which considerable encouragement is given to vernacular instruction, shall have had sufficient time to operate, it is but reasonable to expect, (and the expectation is justified by the experience of the past year in many districts) that we shall hear no more of opposition or indifference to vernacular education. It has been asserted in various quarters that the grant of State aid to Mission schools has caused misapprehension and distrust of the motives of Government. On this point, I would repeat the observation made in my letter of the 24th September last, that it is impossible to reconcile the circumstance that Mission schools, wherever they are established, are largely resorted to by the natives, with the hypothesis that the alleged objections are a genuine expression of any strong feeling on the part of the native community. If it were so, the petitions for the discontinuance of the system of grants on the assumption of the Government by Her Majesty, would have been numerous, instead of being confined, as I have reason to believe they have been in this Presidency, to a single memorial, the prayer of which has been considered and rejected by the Home Government. I am unable to recommend any alterations in the leading features of the present system, which could be carried out consistently with the great object in view, of furnishing the natives of this Presidency with improved and extended facilities of education, or which are demanded by other considerations of public policy.

The question of a special rate for the support of vernacular education which was raised in the Despatch of 1859 was fully discussed in the year 1859-60. The opinions on this subject, expressed by Mr. A. J. Arbuthnot, the then Director of Public Instruction, are of special interest.* He pointed out that the establishment of a special rate for the support of village schools throughout the country "would be incompatible with any extension of the Grant-in-Aid system." "If the Government undertake to provide a system of efficient village schools, it is not to be expected that private agencies will extend or continue their operations. Private schools of this class will gradually dis-

Levy of a
Special Rate
for Verna-
cular Schools.

* Vide Appendix E.

appear, and the efforts of those societies and individuals which now are, or which might hereafter be, directed to the extension of elementary education, will be diverted to other objects." But although the Director of Public Instruction was of opinion that the time had not yet arrived for, definitely, and generally, adopting this mode of providing for popular education, he suggested that the experiment might be tried in one or more districts which were so circumstanced that there would be no immediate prospect of the two systems coming into collision. His recommendation was that the rate which, under the designation of a voluntary rate, had for some years past been collected in the sub-division of the Rajahmundry district should be legalised and extended to the principal division of that District and also to the District of South Arcot. This proposal was not approved, at this time, by Government, as it was opposed to any compulsory taxation for educational purposes.

English *vs.*
the Vernaculars.

The question of the relations of the English and Vernacular languages in the Government system of education was mooted again in the year 1860-61. Sir Charles Trevelyan was of opinion that an undue preference had been given to Vernacular instruction to the prejudice of English instruction, and considered that in the lower classes of the Provincial and Zillah schools, and throughout the Taluk schools, Geography and such like subjects should be taught in English. An unfavourable opinion was passed on Taluk schools by Mr. Powell, the Acting Director, who recommended that the number of these schools should be reduced, their designation altered, and that those retained should be raised to the standard of Anglo-Vernacular Zillah schools. Mr. Arbuthnot to whom the question was referred, deprecated any radical changes in the existing system and in doing so

emphasized the importance of vernacular instruction. He did not overlook the fact that "the English language, which in most Indian schools takes the place which is occupied by the Greek and Latin languages in the schools and colleges of Europe, being a spoken language, and as the language of the Government being largely used in the transactions of business, has practical claims in this country, which cannot be asserted in Europe in favour of the ancient languages of Greece and Europe." And on this ground he thought that it ought to be taught in all schools "for which it is possible to obtain masters at all competent to teach it," but at the same time he considered it inadvisable to "place it as a barrier against the acquisition of much that is likely to prove useful to those, who, either from inaptitude for mastering a difficult foreign language or from want of time, are unable to obtain the mastery over it, which is essential to the acquirement of accurate knowledge through its medium by constituting it the language of instruction in all subjects, except the vernacular language." He therefore strongly recommended the retention of the Taluk schools, and the Government concurred in the Director's views.

In 1865, a third set of rules for educational Grants-in-aid were promulgated after careful consultation with the representatives of the leading educational bodies at Madras. The most important feature of this code, as regards primary education, was the introduction of the system of payment by results, though elementary schools had still the option of receiving aid under the Salary Grant system. In practice the standards prescribed for Results Grants were found to be unduly high, and failure, even in a single subject, was held to disqualify for a grant, so that the rules remained practically inoperative for

Grant-in-Aid
Code.

some time. The rules for Salary Grants were not materially different from those already in force, except that under the new rules teachers were eligible for one-third Salary Grants, whilst the proportion of grants for certificated teachers was raised to one-half. Five standards of qualification were laid down for schoolmasters and three for mistresses, and the University examinations, B. A., F. A., and Matriculation, were substituted for the departmental tests for the three higher grades of qualifications. Grants were also made available for various other purposes such as scholarships, erection of buildings, purchase of books, furniture, &c. The general rules bore fruit in greatly increased salary and other grants, the number of schools aided having risen from 502 in 1864-65 to 775 in 1865-66, and the aggregate amount of grants from Rs. 89,802 to Rs. 116,876. The Results Grant rules, as stated above, remained a dead letter till Government called on the Director to revise them. A few minor modifications were made in the scheme for general grants that came into operation in 1865, but, as a whole, that scheme remained in force up to the first of April 1880. A new scheme of Results Grants was issued and came into force from January 1 1868. This scheme is that under which elementary education in the Madras Presidency received its first great developement, and is therefore of historical value.*

* SCHEME FOR GRANTS-IN-AID ON THE "PAYMENT
FOR RESULTS SYSTEM."

SCHEDULE A.

STANDARDS OF EXAMINATION.

1st LOWEST STANDARD.

- (1) *Vernacular Reading*.—As in the 1st part of the 1st Book of Lessons in Tamil. The meanings of words to be given.

That these rules were better adapted to promote primary education may be seen from the fact that the number of schools aided under the Results System alone rose from 494 in 1868-69 to 1,606 in 1870-71. The number of pupils in Results schools advanced during the same period from 15,071 to 45,299 and the grants sanctioned for them from Rs. 24,499 to Rs. 78,176. The rules of 1868 contained the special proviso that grants for girls were to be 50 per cent. higher than those for boys, while in girls' schools there was also a capitation grant on attendance. The large increase in the number of schools, public and private, led to the reorganization of the Inspecting Agency in 1869 and on the 31st March 1870, the Inspecting Agency of the Department comprised the following officers :—Inspectors of schools 6, Deputy Inspectors of schools 19, Inspecting schoolmasters 30, Superintendent of Hill schools 1.

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- (2) *Writing*, in a large hand, short words out of the Reading Book.
 - (3) *Arithmetic*.—Notation to thousands, easy addition, and the multiplication table to five times five. English is to be used in all cases.

2ND STANDARD.

- (1) *Vernacular Reading*.—As in the 2nd part of the 1st Book of Lessons in Tamil, and the first twenty-five lessons of the 2nd Book. Explanation to be given.
- (2) *Writing*, from dictation, short sentences out of the Reading Book.
- (3) *Arithmetic*.—Subtraction, multiplication, and division. The multiplication table to twelve times twelve.

3RD STANDARD.

- (1) *Vernacular Reading*.—As in the 2nd Book of Lessons in Tamil generally, with explanation.
- (2) *Writing*, from dictation, in small hand, out of the Reading Book.
- (3) *Arithmetic*.—Compound rules and reduction, with the ordinary weight, measure and money tables.
- (4) *Grammar*.—Etymology, as in Pope's 1st Catechism of Tamil Grammar. Questions to be put in reference to the Reading Book.

Development
of Private
Education
between 1864
—1865 and
1870—1871.

The following figures will give an idea of the rapid development of schools maintained by Missionary and other private bodies since the promulgation of the Code of 1865. In the schools maintained by the Church Missionary Society in December 1864 there were 9,941 pupils under instruction which increased in December 1868 to 10,527 ; there was also an increase in the number of certificated masters and mistresses. The number of trained and certificated teachers employed in 1865 by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel was considerably more than the number employed in 1862. The larger amount of grant received by the Free Church of Scotland was chiefly spent in procuring more efficient teachers so as to raise the education imparted to a higher standard. Of course the bulk of the grants drawn by this mission was for the Central Institution. The Wesleyan Mission drew in grants the sum of Rs. 7,411 as against Rs. 4,370 in

(5) *Geography* of the District in which the school is situated.

(6) *English Reading*.—As in the 1st Book of Reading of the Madras School Book Society, with explanation in a Vernacular.

(7) *Writing*, in large hand, easy words from the English Reading Book.

4TH STANDARD.

(1) *Vernacular Reading*.—As in the 3rd Book of Lessons in Tamil, with explanation and paraphrase. The quantity to be brought up for examination to be equivalent to about half of the 3rd Book.

(2) *Writing*, from dictation, out of the Reading Book.

(3) *Arithmetic*.—Moderately easy practical questions in vulgar fractions and simple proportion.

(4) *Grammar* generally, as in Pope's 1st Catechism of Tamil Grammar, with application to the Reading Book.

(5) *Geography* of the Presidency, with a general outline of the Geography of Hindoostan. The knowledge required of the Madras Presidency to be such as may be obtained from the study of the "Short Account of the Madras Presidency" in connection with a map.

(6) *English Reading*.—As in the 2nd Book of Reading of

1864. On December 31st, 1864, the number on the rolls of the Society's Anglo-Vernacular Schools was 1,206 and this number rose in 1865 to 1,412. The Rev. Mr. Stephenson wrote "the rules are believed to operate more favourably for Anglo-Vernacular than for Vernacular schools; though the comparative stagnation of vernacular education is ascribed more especially to an ever-increasing desire on the part of the natives for instruction in English." Not only was there an increase in the grants given to Mission schools, grants to schools under Hindu management also showed a substantial advance, from Rs. 13,297 in 1864-65 to 24,433 in 1865-66. The majority of the private institutions came under the category of lower class schools, the other classes of schools being called higher class and middle class schools. The principle on which schools were classed as Higher, Middle and Lower class schools was not very clear. Mr.

the Madras School Book Society, with translation of easy passages into a vernacular.

(7) *Writing*, from dictation, out of English Reading Book.

(8) *English Grammar*, Etymology and the Syntax of simple sentences. Application to be made to the Reading Book.

SCHEDULE B.

Grants to pupils passed under the several standards.

	VERNACULAR.						ENGLISH OR EXTRA LANGUAGE.			
	1	2	3	4	5	Total Rupees.	6	7	8	Total Rupees.
	Reading.	Writing.	Arithmet i	Grammar.	Geography.		Reading.	Writing.	Grammar.	
1st Standard.	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$2\frac{1}{2}$
2nd do. ...	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	4
3rd do. ...	2	1	2	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	...	3
4th do. ...	3	1	3	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	10	3	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6

(a) For English and Eurasian children, the English

E. B. Powell, the Director of Public Instruction, writing in 1867, said :—"In order that a school may be entitled to a place in the higher class, it should have a staff of teachers adequate to the education of youths up to the Matriculation standard, and it should also, as a general rule, have passed some pupils at the Matriculation examinations ; moreover, a matriculated student or two, produced by a sort of spasmodic effort, however creditable such a result may be to the teacher, will not afford sufficient ground for reckoning a school in the higher class. As regards Government schools, it may be mentioned, the course adopted has been to rank all Zillah schools and more advanced Institutions in the higher grade, Anglo-Vernacular and Taluq Schools being counted in the middle class." The number of private colleges at the close of 1870-71 was 7. One of them the Free Church Mission Central Institution—the present Christian Col-

language may be taken as the vernacular ; and, in the place of English as an extra language, one of the vernaculars of the Presidency—Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, Malayalam and Hindustani—may be brought up.

- (b) In the case of girls' schools the grants will be 50 per cent. higher ; and, in addition, a grant of Rupees 2 will be given for tolerably fair plain needle-work, and one of Rupees 4 for decidedly good work of the same description. A capitation grant of one Rupee a head will also be allowed, *as a temporary measure*, upon the average daily attendance during the year.

Special Regulations in connection with the system of "payment for results."

Only one examination within an official year will be claimable by a school ; but, to meet the case of indigenous schools, half-yearly examinations will, when practicable, be given to such schools, and half the prescribed annual grants will be issued upon the result of each examination.

2. To be eligible for examination, a pupil must have attended six months at the school in which he is reading ; and, to count a month's attendance, a pupil must have attended at least 15 days in that month.

3. A pupil is not to be presented for examination under any standard who has already passed for that standard at another school.

lege—was a first grade college, *i. e.*, teaching up to the B. A. degree examination. This institution first sent up candidates for the B. A. degree examination in 1868-69, passing 5 out of a total of 40 successful candidates for that year. These seven colleges contained 151 pupils in the collegiate department. Three of the colleges were located in Madras,—the Free Church Mission Central Institution, the Doveton Protestant College, and the Sullivan's Garden Seminary (which was partly a theological institution). The Church Missionary Society had a College at Masulipatam and the Gospel Society one at Tanjore. There was also the St. Joseph's College at Negapatam and a private institution established by Mr. Stanes at Coimbatore which sent up candidates for the F. A. examination in 1868-69. There were at the close of 1870-71 five Government colleges, two of them teaching up to the B. A. degree examination. Three out of the four Provincial Schools

4. Where the inspection of a school is made annually, a pupil will not be allowed to pass more than once under any standard, save the fourth or highest. For the fourth, a pupil will be permitted to pass twice at the same school.

5. Where the inspection of a school is made half-yearly, a pupil may pass twice for each of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd standards, and four times for the 4th standard.

6. In the case of half-yearly examinations, the first may be made somewhat less severe than the second.

7. An application, in a prescribed Form, must be made to the Inspector of the Division by the managers of a school seeking aid under the system of payment for results; and at the same time, a copy of the application must be forwarded by them to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction. An application for inspection under this system must reach the Inspector at least three months before; in the course of his ordinary tour, he will visit the District in which the school is situated. If this condition is not fulfilled, the Inspector will be at liberty, should his arrangements render it decidedly inconvenient for him to visit the school, to let the application stand over till the following year's tour. In this case, the Inspector is to send a memorandum of the course pursued by him to the managers of the school, and a copy of the sum to the Office of the Director of Public Instruction.

which existed in 1855-56 had been raised to the rank of colleges, viz., those at Combaconum, Calicut, and Bellary; the first in 1867 and the two last in 1867-68. The Provincial School at Mangalore, established in 1866, was made a Second Grade College in 1868. The Provincial School at Rajahmundry still continued to be a High school. When these Provincial schools were first established, it was intended that they should eventually be raised to colleges, to serve as central institutions for the several parts of the country in which they were located. The number of students in the collegiate departments was 288. The number of private, High and Middle schools at the close of 1870-71 was 448 with 29,301 pupils, whilst the number of government High and Middle Schools rose from 7 in 1855-56 to 82 in 1870-71. The number of Primary Schools for boys in 1870-71 was 2,474 with 55,835 pupils. The number of mixed Primary Schools

8. When the preliminary conditions are fulfilled, the Inspector will examine the children presented to him according to the standards specified by the managers of the school. After examination he will furnish the managers with a memorandum showing the pupils examined and passed under each standard, and the grant claimable in consequence. This memorandum is to be submitted to the Director of Public Instruction by the managers, with an application requesting that the sum stated by the Inspector to be claimable may be paid to them. On receiving the application and memorandum, the Director of Public Instruction will take immediate steps to pay the money.

9. Schools receiving aid under the salary grant system cannot claim assistance under the "payment for results" system, and *vice versa*.

10. All schools receiving aid under the system of "payment for results" will, similarly to schools under the salary grant system, have to furnish such returns and statements as may be called for by Government.

11. To pass at an annual examination for any head belonging to a standard, a pupil must secure one-half of the marks assigned by the Inspector to that head. The Inspector is at liberty, however, to allow a *small* deficiency under one head to be compensated for by superior proficiency under another.

was 264 and contained in all 9,007 boys and 2,136 girls. The only Government Primary Schools were the 16 Hill schools of Ganjam, and the Yenadi school in the district of Nellore. The total number of pupils in all the Government institutions was 10,089 of whom 12 were girls. The part taken by Government in primary and female education had thus been all but exclusively by means of Grants-in-aid. The net expenditure of Government in its own institutions for general education rose from Rs. 95,704 in 1865-66 to Rs. 213,472 in 1870-71. There were 8 Government Normal schools in 1870-71 for training male teachers with 188 students, and one for training female teachers with 7 students. The number of private institutions for training schoolmasters maintained by Missions was 5 with 206 students, and for training schoolmistresses one with 58 students, which was also maintained by a Missionary Society.*

It was only in 1866 that the subject of female education came under the serious consideration of Government, though previous to that year the several Missions had taken practical steps towards the establishment of elementary schools for girls. The subject, of course, naturally, for many years past, engaged the attention of educated natives, but, omitting the establishment of a few schools, in which elementary instruction was conveyed to girls of a tender age by male teachers, the result had been rather in words than in acts. A stimulus was afforded to female education by a visit from Miss Carpenter, whose philanthropic exertions in England to improve the more neglected sections of the community were well-known. At several meetings in which this lady took part, the following points were debated: (1) whether the time

Female Education.

* For statistical tables shewing the development of education between 1855-56 and 1870-71, *Vide* Statistical Table I.

had arrived for Government to take a direct share in female education, and (2) if so, what is the direct work which it is advisable Government should undertake. In the discussions, very conflicting views were put forward. It appeared, however, that the general feeling was that Government should, at any rate, not do more than establish a Normal School for training female teachers. Even action, to this extent, which was what Miss Carpenter advocated, was not taken till after sometime owing to the heavy expenditure involved. The educational Department, however, set about collecting, as far as possible reliable information regarding girls studying in schools unconnected with the Department. On the 31st March 1868, there were 6,510 girls under instruction in schools connected with the Educational Department. The statistics received from non-departmental schools—which were mostly under Mission management—shewed 4,295 girls under instruction, of which number 399 were returned as Europeans and Eurasians, 2,420 as Native Christians, 1,365 as Hindus, 29 Muhammadans and 82 others. The larger proportion of Native Christians than Hindus is noteworthy. Out of the 4,295 only 700 were entered as learning English. The total number of girls that received instruction in the Madras Presidency in 1868 may be taken as exceeding 10,500. The figures, however, were considered to be more or less inaccurate. Speaking of the nature of instruction imparted to the girls, the Director of Public Instruction remarked :—“In almost all cases the instruction conveyed was of a very elementary stamp ; and in too many instances, I fear the teaching is productive of no permanent effect beyond rendering the pupils better disposed towards female education, and so paving the way for the instruction of a succeeding generation.” Omitting Madras and Tinnevely, where female education was most extended, the dis-

tricts which showed the largest attendance were Malabar and Tanjore. It is right to notice here the efforts that the Maharajah of Vizianagram made to encourage female education on his estates. In 1868 he established a school at Vizianagram for Rajpoot and Brahman girls, at an annual cost of about 12,000 Rupees. The school though unconnected with the Department was under Government inspection. In an order, dated 26th November, 1868, His Excellency the Governor made the following remark:—"The Government of Madras have frequently acknowledged the enlightened and liberal spirit in which the Maharajah of Vizianagram fulfils the responsible obligations of his position as a great landed proprietor, and they now receive with the greatest satisfaction this further evidence of the Maharajah's desire to promote the welfare of his countrymen, as shewn in the practical and generous aid which he has given to the cause of female education in India." In 1868 the Government of India was pleased to assign, as an experimental measure, an annual sum of Rs. 12,000 for five years, for the support of a Government Female Normal School at each of the three Presidency Towns. The Hindu community were required to make provision for a few stipends and the guarantee of money for stipends was made conditional upon Hindu caste females being alone admitted to this school. At first there was some difficulty experienced in securing pupils but this difficulty was overcome gradually. The school was formally opened in December 1870, with Miss Bain, now Mrs. Brander, as the first Superintendent. Mrs. Brander, as first Superintendent of the Female Normal School, and afterwards as Inspectress of Girls' Schools, has contributed no mean share to the development of female education in this Presidency. At the close of 1870-71 the number of girls' schools in the Presidency was returned as 138 of which

91 had middle departments and one a high department and the number of pupils was 10,185. According to the census of 1871, of the Native Christian females of school going age only 1 out of 10, and of Hindu females only 1 out of 509, had received any education. But of a population of 1,880,720 Muhamadans, very few girls had received instruction in schools.

Formation of
a sound Ver-
nacular lite-
rature.

In the order of Government No. 275 of the 31st July 1868, the Director of Public Instruction was called upon to furnish "a brief report as to what has been, and is being done in the Presidency for the formation of a sound Vernacular literature." In reply to this order, the Director said :—"It will be seen that the formation of a sound Vernacular literature is now the main object of the body formerly termed the Madras School Book Society. It cannot be doubted that the creation of such a literature is of the highest importance; but this is a work which can only be accomplished gradually, as an improved elementary education becomes diffused throughout the Native community. The few Hindus who have received a fair education draw upon works in the English language for their literary pleasures, and for such further information as they wish to acquire while engaged in the business of life; and it must be stated with regret, that, as a general rule, they do little or nothing towards the improvement of their Vernacular literature. As yet the masses have been scarcely touched by our educational operations; and, even if elementary instruction of a sound description were diffused to a much greater extent than it is, the substitution of new literary books for those now possessed by the Hindus, which have their roots in the past history of the people, could only be effected very slowly." The Madras School Book and Vernacular Literary Society had two objects in view, one the pre-

paration and publication of school books for natives, the other the formation and diffusion of a sound vernacular literature. When originally established some fifty years ago, the society confined its attention to the first object ; but in 1865 it came to the conclusion that the time had arrived for endeavouring to supply wholesome and instructive reading to the increasing number of educated natives. The Society started a Tamil Magazine under the title "Janavinodini," which did not prove a success. Besides the School Book Society there were two other societies, which had for their object the preparation of school books and the promotion of literature ; they were the Upayuka Grandha Karana Sabha (or Society for the Preparation of Useful Books) which had been set at foot by the past students of the Government College and the South India School Book Society. The former did not last long but the latter has done a great deal not only in the way of providing Mission Schools with similar books, English and Vernacular, but also by encouraging Vernacular literature.

The education of Muhammadans engaged the attention of Government from an early period, but owing chiefly to the apathy of the Muhammadan community much progress was not effected. The education given in the Yeomiah schools, which were institutions of a religious and charitable character, was confined to teaching the pupils merely to read the Koran in a mechanical manner. On a representation being made of their utter worthlessness in an educational point of view, Government were pleased in their Order No. 266 of the 23rd October 1863, to give the following instructions : " The Yeomiah schools..... should in future be excluded from the returns as well as from the Educational Budget. The Yeomiahs are charitable grants made by the former Government,

Muham-
madan Edu-
cations.

which have been continued by the British Government and should be charged in the annual budget to the head of charitable allowances. The Madrasa-i-Azam which was established in 1851 by His Highness Azam Jah Bahadur became a Government institution in 1860. This together with another Government institution the Mylapore Middle School and the Harris School were the only high class institutions in Madras specially intended for Muhammadans at the end of the period under review. The Harris school originated in a legacy of £1500 from the Hon. Sybilla Harris, which was handed over to the Church Missionary Society for the erection of a school for Muhammadans. The school was opened in 1857. It reached the high school standard in 1866, when a Matriculation Class was formed, from which one candidate passed. In 1870-71 the total number of Muhammadan boys under instruction throughout the Presidency was 4,301. A very large majority of the Muhammadan boys belonged to the primary classes. Few of them were to be found in the middle school classes, and fewer still in the Matriculation classes; and a Muhammadan student in a college class was quite a rarity. During the fourteen years that the University had been holding its several examinations, only 41 Muhammadans passed the Matriculation examination, five the F. A. and none the B. A. examinations. The numbers that had gone up for the lower University examinations—181 for Matriculation and 41 for the First Examination in Arts—were not more encouraging.

Progress of
the University of
Madras.

This is an appropriate place to consider the history of the University between the years 1857 and 1871. During the early years, the number of candidates that appeared for the Matriculation Examination was very small and Mr. A. J. Arbuthnot writing to Govern-

ment in 1860 accounted for it as follows :—" This unsatisfactory result I am disposed to attribute, in a great measure, to the rules passed in 1858 for regulating the admission of candidates into the Uncovenanted Civil Service, the examinations for which having hitherto been open to all comers without the payment of any fee, while the standard has been pitched much lower than that of the University,—the rules providing that, as regards eligibility for admission to the public service, the University Matriculation test should be equivalent only to the lower service test, while the standard of the former is on the whole higher than that of the higher service test—have tended to discourage many candidates from resorting to the University Examinations." The University examinations were, however, soon connected with the Public Service and this gave to the former a tangible value in the estimation of the native community. The following statement shews the steady progress there was in the numbers passing the University examinations in Arts and Law during the period under consideration :—

Years.	Matriculation.	First Examination in Arts.	Bachelor of Arts.	Master of Arts.	Bachelor of Laws.	Master of Laws.
5 years ending in 1861	155	...	21	...	4	...
5 years ending in 1866	780	149	41	...	12	...
5 years ending in 1871	1,793	703	135	6	52	2
Total ...	2,728	852	197	6	68	2

There were, besides, 8 Bachelors of Civil Engineer-

ing, 2 Bachelors of Medicine and 1 Doctor of Medicine. Of the 2728 candidates that matriculated up to 1870-71, 1,331 came from Government and 977 from aided schools, the remaining 420 were educated privately or in schools and colleges beyond the limits of the Presidency. Of the 852 that had passed the F. A. Examination, 414 were from Government and 203 from aided colleges; and of the 197 Bachelors of Arts, 157 belonged to Government against 12 from aided Colleges. The remaining 135 First in Arts men and 28 B. A.'s, had been educated privately or were from colleges outside the limits of the Presidency. It was in 1863-64 that the F. A. Examination was first interposed between the Matriculation and the B. A. degree examination. The course for the B. A. degree extending over three years, candidates for the F. A. examination were allowed to go up one year after matriculating. But the interval between the Matriculation and F. A. examinations was afterwards extended to two years, so that those who matriculated in 1869 could go up for the F. A. examination only in 1871. For the B. A. degree examination originally a candidate had to pass in (1) English, (2) Optional Language, (3) History, (4) Elementary Mathematics, (5) Moral Philosophy and (6) one out of these alternative subjects, (a) Mixed Mathematics, (b) Logic and Mental Sciences, or (c) Physics, Inorganic Chemistry, Physiology and Physical Geography. The examination for the B. A. degree was thus very extensive though it did not allow of much specialization. In reporting on the results of the examination in 1859-60, the examiners contrasted the attainments required for a mere degree in the Indian Universities with those required for a degree at Oxford and Cambridge thus:—"A pass at Oxford and Cambridge is attainable with very moderate exertions by persons of very moderate abilities. In the present

case, the standard is relatively higher, the range of subjects wider and the requisite exertion is greater. The B. A. degree of the Madras University may, therefore, be looked on essentially as an honorable distinction." In 1858-59, the rule which required every candidate for a degree in Law to have previously taken a degree in Arts was cancelled and the examination for this degree was opened to all students who had completed 3 years from the date of the entrance examinations. In 1863-64 the distinction originally drawn in some cases between ordinary and honour degrees of the same name was done away with and a higher degree was made to correspond with a more extensive range of attainments. In the same year the standard of the examination in Law was raised and the subjects of examination, which were originally laid down in a vague and unsatisfactory manner, were distinctly specified. In the room of the degree of the Bachelor of Laws with honours a new degree that of Master of Laws was instituted. At the establishment of the University two degrees were provided in Civil Engineering, *viz.*, those of Graduate (G. C. E.) and Master (M. C. E.) The designation of the lower was changed from Graduate to Bachelor and the higher degree was placed in abeyance. In 1869-70 greater extension was given to the *vivâ voce* portion of the B. A. degree examination. In 1870-71 Mental Philosophy became an essential subject for the B. A. examination and Logic and Moral Philosophy optional. Up till then Moral Philosophy had been an essential subject and Logic and Mental Philosophy optional. In these subjects special text books were prescribed.

Section III.—Education between 1871 and 1881.

Acts III and
IV of 1871.

The introduction of the Towns' Improvement Act and the Local Funds Act, which received the assent of the Governor-General on the 28th March 1871, and were brought into force, the former from the 1st May, and the latter from the 1st April of the same year, was one of the most important events in the educational history of the Madras Presidency.* Although these Acts did not define the description of education to which Local and Municipal Funds were applicable, still it was distinctly intimated by Government that they were intended mainly for the maintenance and improvement of elementary education. The exceptions allowed were Higher class and Middle class schools hitherto maintained under the Madras Education Act of 1863; institutions for medical and technical training; and certain cases not defined, in which Government saw fit, on the representation of the parties concerned, to sanction a different course. The cost of certain classes of elementary schools and of all schools hitherto known as Rate schools was paid in Municipalities from Municipal funds, and in rural tracts from the proceeds of a house-tax, of which the maximum range was from 4 annas to Rs. 5 per annum. This tax was levied within an area delimited for educational purposes under the designation of Union, and consisting of one or more villages, so situated that the school was not more than two miles and a half distant from the houses of any of the rate-payers. In 1871-72, there were altogether 263 Union schools with an attendance of 8,067 scholars. Schools of the lower class on the Results' system were aided from general local funds and not from the house-tax. As Middle

* *Vide* Appendix F.

class schools were now aided from Provincial Funds and Lower class schools from Municipal and Local Funds, it became a matter of great importance to lay down some precise line of demarcation between these two classes of schools. The subject was discussed in 1871-72 at a conference of Inspecting officers. The majority of Inspectors were of opinion that the standard of Lower class schools should not be above the Third Standard of the scheme for Results' grants, omitting English. Mr. Powell considered, however, that it was very undesirable that every elementary school, reading up to the Third Standard, should be able to get itself transferred to the Middle class by the mere introduction of a little English, and Government concurred with him in thinking that the Third Results' standard, inclusive and not exclusive of English, should be laid down as the limit of instruction for a Lower class school. It was also ruled that the accidental passing of two or three boys for the Fourth Standard should not entitle a school to be transferred from the Lower to the Middle class, and that in cases of a doubtful nature, the decision of the Director of Public Instruction should be binding upon the Local Fund Boards. Certain other charges incurred in connection with elementary education were also transferred to Municipal and Local Funds. These were defrayed from the land-cess and from Municipal rates. Under this head came two-thirds of the salaries, office and travelling allowances of the Deputy Inspectors. Speaking of this system, Lt-Col. R. M. Macdonald, the Acting Director of Public Instruction, wrote in 1872:—"It seems very doubtful whether the system, under which a portion of the salaries not only of the new Deputy Inspectors, but also of the Deputy Inspectors already in the service of Government is to be paid out of Local and Municipal Funds will be found to answer. Already difficult questions

have arisen as to the position of the whole of the Deputy Inspectors as regards leave, acting allowances, transfers and promotions. The general status of this valuable class of officers has been undoubtedly lowered, for not only have they ceased in some measure to be Government servants, but their average salaries have been greatly diminished. Hitherto a Deputy Inspector has had before him the prospect of rising from Rupees 100 to Rupees 300. The maximum salary of all the new Deputy Inspectors is now fixed at Rupees 100." It was also originally intended that one-fourth of the cost of all the Government Normal Schools should be debited to Local and Municipal Funds, but the only Normal Schools with regard to which the Government was relieved of a portion of its expenditure, were those of Vizagapatam, Cannanore, Mangalore and the Normal class of Narsapur. The others supplied few or no teachers to elementary schools hence it was considered inequitable to throw any portion of the cost of these schools on Local and Municipal Funds. The Madras Municipal Act IX of 1867, which related solely to the Presidency Town, did not contain any reference to education. It was therefore supplemented by Act V of 1871, which was passed on the 1st April 1871, nearly simultaneously with the Towns' Improvement Act and the Local Funds Act. This Act, which was known as Madras Municipal Act V of 1871, provided that the funds of the Municipality should be applied to the diffusion of education, and with this view the construction and repairs of school houses, the establishment and maintenance of schools, either wholly or in part, by means of Grants-in-aid, the inspection of schools and the training of teachers. There were no rules under this Act and there was no reference to the subject of education in the Municipal bye-laws.

It was asserted in a paper laid before Parliament on the 29th July 1870, that the Madras Presidency had not kept pace with the other provinces in the extension of primary education, and one of the causes to which this shortcoming was ascribed was the absence of that hearty and cordial co-operation between the District and Educational authorities, which distinguished the reports from the Punjaub, Oude, and the Central Provinces. Acts III and IV of 1871 were specially introduced to remedy this defect and met with the required success. The large sphere of action of Local Fund and Municipal Boards in the matter of Elementary education was evidenced by the fact that in 1872-73, 4,081 schools with 110,078 pupils were supported by or drew their entire aid from such Boards; in 1871-72 the corresponding numbers were 2,361 and 63,898 pupils. On the 28th March 1873, Government issued Proceedings No. 426, Financial, ordering that the imposition of the house-tax, the source from which Union schools were to have been supported, should not proceed any further, and that at the end of 1872-73 the tax should cease. During 1873-74 the Union schools already sanctioned were maintained from unallotted balances of the general fund of the various circles; and, where the balances did not suffice, a special grant was made from Provincial Funds to meet the deficiency. After 1873-74 the schools were to be supported from the General Local Funds, while Local Funds were to be relieved from the contribution hitherto required from them for the cost of Deputy Inspectors and Normal schools, which were to be resumed by Government as *in toto* a Provincial charge. This modification of the policy laid down in Act IV of 1871 led many to fear that funds would not be forthcoming to allow of the development of elementary education, although Government came to the conclusion that the arrange-

Effects of
Acts III and
IV of 1871.

ments contemplated would provide sufficient funds to carry out the schemes which had been matured. In 1872-73 there were 322 Union schools of which 242 were of the Lower class. Strictly speaking, Union schools should have belonged to the Lower class; exceptions, however, were made in favour of Rate schools and a few other institutions. To attract pupils two measures were adopted by Local Fund Boards both of which were to be regretted; in the first place a smattering of English was often taught; and in the second, either fees were altogether excused or merely nominal ones imposed. "There seems reason to fear," wrote E. B. Powell, the Director of Public Instruction, in 1873, "that the object of Government, *viz.*, to diffuse improved elementary education among the masses, may be set aside by the machinery which has been adopted to attain it; the natives who find seats at Local Fund Boards and the leading members of Sub-Committees which have the immediate supervision of Union schools, are, to a large extent, officials, who naturally desire to get an English education for their children and the children of their friends with as little expense to themselves as possible. Union schools should be vernacular ones, and moderate fees should be charged at them; but then it is questionable whether, in the present state of things, such schools would secure a fair attendance."

Collegiate
Education.

The progress in Collegiate education during the period under review was very considerable. In 1870-71, there were 5 Government and 7 Private Colleges with an attendance of 274 and 121 in them, respectively. In 1880-81, there were altogether 24 Arts Colleges, of which 10 were Government institutions with an attendance of 691 scholars and 14 Private institutions with an attendance of 830 scholars. In

1870-71 the number of First grade Colleges was 2 and they were the Presidency College and the Free Church Mission Institution ; in 1880-81 the number of First Grade Colleges was 7 and they were the Presidency College, the Kumbaconam College, the Rajahmundry Colleges,—all three Government institutions—the Madras Christian College, S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, St. Joseph's College, Negapatam, and the Devon Protestant College. Of the 17 Second Grade Colleges in 1880-81, Government maintained 7. These Colleges were situated at Berhampore, Bellary, Cuddalore, Salem, Madura, Calicut, and Mangalore. The leading Colleges underwent some important developments during the period under review. In February 1875, a Professor of Physical Science, Dr. W. H. Wilson, was appointed to the Presidency College. Mr. E. B. Powell, who did a great deal for the development of the Presidency College, was in charge of the institution till 1862, after which he served in the capacity of Director of Public Instruction for 12 years. Mr. Powell was succeeded by Mr. Edmund Thompson, M. A., another most distinguished educationist. Mr. Powell left India on the 31st March 1875 after having put in a service of upwards of 34 years. His old pupils and other native friends have paid a most eloquent tribute to Mr. Powell's usefulness as an educationist by putting up a statue in the Presidency College. In January 1877 an important change took place in the Central Institution of the Free Church of Scotland. It became the representative more or less directly of all the Churches of the Reformation and came to be known from thence as the "Free Church Institution and the Madras Christian College." The Church Missionary Society and the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society agreed to give pecuniary help to the institution and the funds available were expected to secure as a "minimum staff for the Colle-

giate Department five Professors, with two Assistant Professors, and such Pundits as may be from time to time required." The ideal aimed at was that of a College separate from any school department and not dependent on any one Church or Missionary Society. A chair of Physical Science was established in the year 1878. Even as early as in 1870-71 the Central Institution of the Free Church of Scotland, owing to the earnest labours of the Rev. Wm. Miller, not only came to be recognized as the largest, the most advanced, and the most successful of all the aided colleges and schools, but also as a formidable rival to the foremost of the Government Colleges. The Rev. Wm. Miller arrived in Madras in December 1862. The cause of higher education itself owes no small share of its development to the indefatigable labours of the Rev. Wm. Miller, who is known as the prince of Educationists. Mr. W. Porter, M. A., who took charge of the Kumbaconum College in the year 1863, also brought that institution to a very high state of efficiency. Commenting on the results of this College, in 1872, the Director of Public Instruction wrote:—"When it is remembered that this College commenced educating up to the B. A. degree within the last four years, this result, which has only been twice surpassed in the Presidency College itself, must be regarded as eminently creditable to its distinguished Principal, Mr. Porter, under whom this College promises to become the Cambridge of Southern India." In June 1878, Mr. Porter, who had been connected with the Educational Department for 15 years, and under whom the Combaconum College attained its eminent position, was appointed Tutor to the Maharajah of Mysore. After Mr. Porter the Principalship of the Combaconum College was held for some little time by Mr. T. Gopala Row, one of the most distinguished native educationists of Southern India.

The advocates of higher education have been obliged from time to time to meet hostile criticisms on the system of Collegiate education pursued in this Presidency. In 1871, Dr. John Murdoch, one of India's truest friends and whose name is so well-known in connection with the Christian Literature Society, addressed an important letter to Government. It is with reference chiefly to this letter that Col. Macdonald made the following remarks in 1872:—

“Hostile criticism in this and the other Presidencies, summed up in its most exaggerated form, asserts that the so-called educated Hindu is an atheistical, immoral, disloyal, conceited, unmannerly, effeminate and selfish individual, with no real taste for scientific or literary pursuits, and no object in life beyond obtaining Government employment, or making a fortune by legal practice. Even hostile criticism can, however, hardly deny that in this Presidency at least educated Hindus are filling important offices around us in an honorable and creditable manner; that a higher tone is being diffused by them through the public service; that in integrity and truthfulness they stand immeasurably above the men of the past generation; that many of them are striving with success to diffuse the blessings of education among their countrymen; and that the number of educated Hindus who can be pointed to as having brought dishonour on the training which they have received is singularly small. In estimating the religious and moral results of our teaching, sufficient allowance does not seem to be made for the trying position in which the Asiatic mind is placed under the influence of European thought.

“Excessere omnes adytis arisque relictis
Dii, quibus imperium hoc steterat.”

Religion is necessarily banished from our schools. Ethics have hitherto been taught only in the B. A.

course, and from the year 1874 Moral Philosophy is to disappear altogether, except as an optional subject. The natural sciences, which bring men of all creeds into one common temple, and exhibit to all alike a Supreme Being, hourly revealing himself in all the phenomena of nature, are practically a sealed book to the Hindu student, for they also belong to the optional part of the B. A. course. Dr. Murdoch perhaps expects more from Moral Philosophy than it is likely to yield. Macaulay doubted whether Seneca's three books *On Anger* ever kept anybody from being angry, and the remark applies to all moral instruction as distinguished from moral training. In Europe the play-ground and the domestic circle are the two great spheres in which the character is formed, and moral precepts are reduced to practice. The former unfortunately can hardly be said to exist at present in this country and the absence of it accounts for much more than the want of manliness and physical energy, of which English critics complain. And, as long as the women of this country remain uneducated, the influence of a home here must be very different from that of an English home. Admitting, however, all that may be said on this side of the question, it does seem to be a mistake to banish from our schools and colleges, in a country in which the public code of morality is often essentially false, all systematic instruction in that science, which 'teaches men their duty and the reasons of it.' The practical exclusion of the natural sciences from our course seems also much to be regretted. The most eminent thinkers are coming to the conclusion that the neglect of them in Europe has been a grievous error. The intellectual discipline which the experimental sciences are calculated to afford would be particularly valuable in correcting the dreamy and impractical turn of mind which characterizes the

Hindu student. Some knowledge too of the laws of health, apart from its importance to the individual himself, seems very desirable among men who, as members of Municipal and Local Fund Boards, are expected to discuss and decide on sanitary measures, and who ought to be our main instruments for spreading some idea of the advantages of such measures among their countrymen. I also agree with Dr. Murdoch in considering that Political Economy is very unwisely ignored in our scheme. The recent imposition of new taxes, the general rise in the prices of the necessities of life, and the frequent occurrence of dearths and famines seem to render it desirable that sound elementary notions on this class of topics should be diffused throughout the country. The history of 'Trades' Unions in England and of Communism in France shows how much danger may lurk in hazy notions of the relative rights of labour and capital, and seems to indicate that Political Economy, which especially concerns the masses, should be taught to the masses, if not in their own interests, at least in the interests of society at large. This subject enters at present into one of the optional branches of the M. A. course, and the propriety of making it a part of a Collegiate, much less of a school course, will certainly not be generally admitted. I have always thought that some elementary notions on this subject might very well be diffused through the medium of books modelled on the plan of Archbishop Whateley's *Easy Lessons on Money Matters* and Miss Martineau's *Tales*, and it may be remarked that Mr. Arbuthnot, when Director of Public Instruction, prescribed a translation of the former as a text-book for the fifth class of our Taluq schools. This part of the scheme, however, if it was ever carried out, seems to have fallen into abeyance." With regard to the intellectual results, however, of the system of higher educa-

tion, Col. Macdonald admitted that it did not result in producing any real taste for either literary or scientific pursuits. "In Europe the genuine student sighs for the hour which will release him from further examinations and leave him at liberty to commence the real studies of his life. In India education seems to be viewed merely as a stepping-stone to preferment. The student pants for more examinations, and in the same way as he has mastered and thrown aside certain textbooks in literature, history, and mathematics, he proceeds to master all the various codes, manuals and rules prescribed for the different tests of the Uncovenanted Civil Service. The number of persons who have passed the examinations laid down for Deputy Collectors, Principal Sudder Ameeris, District Munsiffs, Tahsildars, and other similar posts is so enormously in excess of the demand that the majority of the applicants for these appointments must be doomed to a life of disappointment, and any scheme which would reduce this great and growing evil would be a boon to the public service, and to the cause of education. The secret of the failure of many a Government school and of the unsatisfactory work done in many a public office is to be traced to a small volume huddled away in the recesses of a desk and brought out for future study by the master or the clerk in school or office hours. The school declines or the work of the office falls in arrears, but in due course the *Gazette* chronicles another addition to the long list of men who have passed the special tests. A positive dislike for any reading beyond that contained in newspapers seems to be the natural result of these habits. The stunted intellectual growth of the Hindu, after reaching a certain point, may also be partly attributed to the premature forcing to which he is subjected, a process which must be alike injurious to his mind and his body. The increasing difficulty of the examination

papers demands increased exertion, and several cases have, I understand, occurred of late years of very promising young men dying of disease brought on by over study. Some amount of leisure is absolutely necessary, if a habit of general reading is to be acquired, as it should be in youth; but the Hindu boy never plays and never allows himself any time for light reading. Under the present scheme of study, a boy matriculates in five or six years and takes his degree four years later. But by denying himself all recreation, a youth of more than average ability sometimes succeeds in getting through the first part of the course in a still shorter period. Sometime ago I received an application for employment from a young man, who produced a testimonial from the Principal of the institution in which he was employed, certifying that he had taken his degree seven years after he had commenced learning the English alphabet. These may be exceptional cases, but everything seems to point to the conclusion that the school course should be extended to eight years; that some specific encouragement should be given during that period to general reading in the form of historical novels, travels, biography and natural history; and that boys should not be permitted to matriculate before the age of fifteen or sixteen." Col. Macdonald's suggestion for the extension of the school course has practically been carried out.

Mr. E. B. Powell, the Director of Public Instruction, Messrs. Powell and Thomson on Higher Education. referring to Col. Macdonald's suggestion, regarding the curricula of studies contained in the above para., made the following observations, in 1873:—"It is unquestionable that everywhere the old curriculum of studies will have to make room for some new subjects calculated to give a wider and a clearer view of nature and her laws, and to draw forth the powers of

observation implanted in man, but hitherto left undeveloped in most countries, and especially in India. It must be recollected, however, that the time for study is limited while the new branches of knowledge claiming attention are more than one or two; it is a matter of difficulty to see (1) what subjects should be introduced as important in themselves, and as affording the mental discipline which is desired, and (2) how the present course should be altered so as to afford room for the introduction of the new studies. Ere very long it is highly probable that ordinary education will have to embrace such subjects as a general knowledge of man's frame and constitution, the elements of physics, the leading principles of law and government, the principles of political economy, the elements of music, including singing, &c. But, before these subjects become part of the ordinary curriculum of a school, a considerable revolution will have to take place; and, no doubt, the leading ideas connected with the various subjects will first be diffused in an unconnected and unscientific manner through the upper classes of the community. I am inclined to think that at present, instead of introducing observational or experimental science into the ordinary school course, a beginning should be made by modifying the F. A. and B. A. courses, and making them include, as essential and not merely optional subjects, some branches of observational or experimental science. After experience has been gained in dealing with the higher tests, the action taken with regard to them may be extended to the Matriculation examination and the ordinary school course. By such a procedure, besides other advantages, we should have comparatively little difficulty in securing teachers competent to give instruction in the new subjects, whereas, if new requirements were to be introduced in connexion with the school course, it would be impossible to supply the demand for qualified teach-

ers under the new system. Turning from the subjects of study to the mode in which they are taught, it seems clear that the character of the examination to which the students are subjected will go far to fix the style in which they will gather up their knowledge. In language, especially, care must be taken to prevent superficial knowledge and memory carrying off the credit which should pertain to thorough comprehension and reflection. But, as I have already observed, the teachers and the taught are sure to follow the requirements of University Examinations, and by a judicious style of examining, the evil of cramming may be checked, and the reflective faculties of the students encouraged. I may mention, in illustration of the paramount influence of the University, that the officers of the Department found it impracticable to secure the effective study of elementary mechanical principles in school classes, although such study was prescribed for Government schools, simply because the knowledge would not "tell" in the Matriculation examination. So also in the case of hand-writing, which generally is very poor indeed, and in many instances perfectly disgraceful, departmental injunctions have been repeatedly promulgated; but, as no action has been taken by the University to encourage good hand-writing, the injunctions have been without effect." The remarks of Mr. Edmund Thompson on the general effects of higher education, made when he was Acting Director of Public Instruction in 1875, are interesting. After referring to the large increase of pupils in the Kumbaconum College, Mr. Thompson goes on to say :—" Tanjore is no doubt an exceptional district in the matter of higher education, but the desire for College training is not confined to that part of the Presidency, the great development of the Free Church Mission Institution, and the smaller, yet not wholly insignificant, advance made by the

Presidency College sufficiently prove. For my own part I regard this fact with great satisfaction. I believe that we are gradually training a body of men who will for the most part lead lives creditable to themselves and useful to their fellow-countrymen. Much pungent criticism has been lavished on the lapses in English idiom, or the faults of manners exhibited by some of our young graduates. As to the former, I should doubt if the able critics themselves should not make as many mistakes in a familiar letter written in French or German, even though they might have carefully studied these languages, or what is more resided among the people who speak them, an advantage, by the way, not so fully shared by the bulk of our Hindu students as those not intimately acquainted with the subject are apt to suppose; and as to the latter it is probably as much an accident of their youth as of their education. A young man, especially if he be conscious of possessing some intellectual vigour, has no doubt about anything, and lives in the comfortable assurance that what he thinks, or has learned to like, must be right; this is apt to produce a degree of self-assertion that is not pleasing to his elders; but the evil is not confined to young India, and I believe it is not generally considered that an Oxford or Cambridge undergraduate is deficient in self-assertion or disposed to receive with excessive deference the dicta of his seniors. The phenomena, I feel sure, is but a passing one, and in India, as in Europe, these youths now so sharply criticised for conceit or abruptness of manners will, with experience of the world, tone down into sensible and accomplished men.....Briefly, then, to conclude this part, it has been said that in recent years a million sterling has been spent on education in the Presidency, and chiefly on higher education. The latter part of this statement is open to the objection that a considerable portion

of what is supposed to be devoted to higher is really spent on middle or even on lower class education, for all colleges have junior departments and many high schools begin from the alphabet. But, be that as it may, the great point is, has the money been well spent, and has it produced good fruit? I believe that all candid minds will admit that it has, and many perhaps will doubt if the same sum of money spent in a different direction would have been so widely productive of good."

The progress of elementary education, due to the operation of Acts III and IV of 1871 and the Grant-in-Aid system, during the period under review, was very marked. The activity of Local Fund and Municipal Boards was evidenced by the fact that in 1872-73, 4,081 schools with 110,078 pupils were supported by or drew their whole aid from such Boards; in 1873-74 the corresponding numbers were 5,168 schools and 137,549 pupils, and this increase was steadily kept up afterwards. In 1871-72 the grants sanctioned from Local and Municipal Funds for Lower class schools under the Results' system was Rs. 68,277. In 1880-81 payments made from Local and Municipal Funds for Results' grants amounted to Rs. 191,539. In Government Order, Financial Department No. 1655 of 10th December 1872, a report was called for "on the general question of the effect of Results' grants in inducing the discontinuance of school fees." Mr. Bowers, one of the Inspectors, reported as follows:—"It is very hard to learn the actual state of things when there exists any inducement to misrepresentation. I believe that *à priori* reasoning on the propensities and habits of the primitive Hindu will lead to a very trustworthy conclusion. We know that that individual will not pay any demand which he thinks he can avoid paying; that he will not part

Growth of the
Grant-in-Aid
system.

with an anna which he can possibly keep ; that he will take every anna he can possibly lay claim to. On these principles it is easy to foresee that the people, learning that the master receives money from Government for teaching their children, will be quite ready to believe that the Government has, with paternal liberality, satisfied the schoolmaster's demands, that, therefore, the parents are no longer liable. On the other hand, the schoolmasters, calculating that it is more advantageous to teach a good many boys without fees and secure a large grant, than to teach a few boys who pay small fees and receive no grant or a very trifling one, will be unwilling to drive away boys from their schools who represent Rs. 3 or Rs. 4 at the next examination for grants, especially if there has been expended nearly a year's labour in making them thus profitable. As their conclusions coincide with so much as we can gather from experience, I think we are quite safe in believing that, when the schoolmasters complain of the loss of their fees, they are near speaking the truth." Another Inspector believed that some parents had discontinued the monthly money-payments formerly made to indigenous teachers, but he thought that presents on festivals and at particular stages of a child's instruction were continued to be given. " Upon the whole," wrote Mr. E. B. Powell in 1873, " there seems no reason to doubt that, as the introduction of the Results' system is gradually modifying the nature of Pīal schools, it is leading the parents in many cases to reduce their money-payments to the teachers. The play of interests will probably set things right eventually ; meantime it will be necessary for the officers of the department to see that the scale of grant is not unduly high."

Changes in
the Grant-in-
Aid Code.

It has been stated that the Salary grant system had been settled in 1865 and the Results' grant system in

1868. In 1869 Mr. Powell submitted a revised code of rules embodying all the modifications which had been ordered from time to time by Government, and making some further additions and changes, the necessity of which he explained. The rules were not sanctioned. Government deemed it advisable to delay the publication of them until it was seen what changes in the administration of the Grant-in-Aid system would be necessary under the Legislative enactments then on the eve of being passed for the imposition of an educational cess. On further consideration, however, Government sanctioned the publication of a section of the revised rules containing the conditions under which grants were to be made for erection, purchase, repair, or enlargement of school buildings. In 1873 an important change in the educational policy of Government was announced. Government stated that it was their intention to employ for the purposes of elementary education some considerable part of the funds hitherto devoted to higher education, and directed Mr. Powell to submit a report as to the best means calculated to effect this object. Mr. Powell considered that funds might be set free in two ways: (1) by reducing the scale on which aid is given in salary and other ordinary grants, and (2) by remodelling Government Middle class schools. He pointed out that in Higher class schools situated in favourable localities the fees and the Government grant very nearly met the total expenditure and sometimes exceeded it. He, therefore, recommended that the grants to trained teachers should be reduced from one-half to one-third, and to certificated but untrained teachers to one-fourth, and that no grants should be given to uncertificated teachers. He also suggested that grants for contingencies, books of reference, and prizes should be discontinued, and that grants for servants should

be given only in the case of Higher class schools. The succeeding Director, Col. Macdonald, in May 1875, suggested that some savings might be effected in the grants to Higher and Middle class schools by reducing the rates of salary grants, and by having a scale of grants for untrained teachers lower than that for trained teachers, but went on to observe that :—

“Although it is probable that the changes proposed will effect some immediate reduction in the Grant-in-Aid expenditure in Higher and Middle class schools, it will be necessary if Government wish to secure the savings thus produced for elementary education, to declare that either that no fresh grants shall be made on account of Middle or Higher class schools or that they shall be made by transfers from schools which now receive them to other schools which are as yet unaided. Practically, a limit of this kind has been set for some years in Grant-in-Aid expenditure in the town of Madras; and the educational position of the Tanjore district would, perhaps, justify a similar restriction there. But in the greater part of this Presidency there is still so much to be done that I should hesitate to recommend any such measure with regard to the other districts.....In this Presidency a school which has once secured a grant retains it for an indefinite period, and as has been often pointed out in the annual reports, a very large portion of the amount available for Grant-in-Aid is spent in the town of Madras. It seems very doubtful whether the expenditure can be regarded as altogether justifiable.”

After long discussion carried on by the Government, the Director, the representatives of Mission education, and the Presidents of Local Boards, the revised Salary-grant-rules were sanctioned towards the close of 1879-80; but their provisions did not come fully into operation until the 1st April 1883. Revised rules for Results Grants were sanctioned in

May 1877. These latter raised the standards in some respects, and reduced the rates by one-third. This reduction was based on the belief that masters and managers were able to make a profit out of the grants even without levying fees, and that the pupils insisted on being taught gratuitously, and even on being subsidized for attending the inspection. The very great decline in the numbers of scholars and schools in 1877-78 and 1878-79 was due partly to the famine and distress that prevailed, but partly also to the stringency of the rules. The South Indian Missionary Conference forwarded a memorial to Government, in June 1879, suggesting some material alterations, and after further discussion, the new rules were issued towards the close of 1879-80 along with those of salary grants. By these, the standards were again lowered, and the old rate of grant was restored. The following were some of the other important modifications introduced in the new Code. Under the old rules, a pupil to be eligible for Results Grants must have attended the school presenting him for at least 90 days during the six working months preceding the examination. The period of attendance was reduced to 75 days in schools in the Niligiri District and the Wynaad Taluk of the Malabar District, owing to the exceptional climates of the Districts. The next and most important change related to the issue of certifying memoranda. Delay in the issue of certifying memoranda on the part of the Inspecting Officers and in the presenting for payment of certifying memoranda on the part of the Managers of schools had led to serious irregularity in the expenditure on Results Grants. The revised rules laid down strict injunctions to Inspecting Officers to issue certifying memoranda immediately after the examination of schools, whilst the Managers of schools were required to present the memoranda for early payment on pain of

fine, or even withdrawal of the whole grant for undue negligence. The duty of forwarding a duplicate memorandum to the Director was also discontinued.

Progress of
the Universi-
ty of Madras.

Between the years 1872 and 1881, the total number of candidates that appeared for the Matriculation examination was 23,019, of whom 8,053 passed. During this period the total number that appeared for the First in Arts examination was 4,116, of whom 1,624 passed. For the B. A. degree examination altogether 1,372 appeared and 726 passed. During the decade ending in 1880-81, seventeen Bachelors of Arts obtained the degree of Master of Arts ;—twelve in Mental Philosophy and Sociology, three in English and Sanskrit, one in English and Latin, and one in Biology. Four Bachelors of Laws obtained the degree of Master of Laws, ninety candidates took the degree of Bachelor of Laws and seventeen took the degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering.* The great disparity in the numbers passing the Matriculation, F. A. and B. A. examinations suggest the obvious inference that a large number of students go in for the Matriculation examination, who have no intention of prosecuting their studies even up to the F. A. standard. The following were some of the important changes that were made in the bye-laws of the University. From 1871-72 candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering were required to have completed two years from the time of passing the First Examination in Arts instead of one year. In the course of 1873-74 it was decided that, in order to secure some sort of guarantee of a Law Student's having carefully and intelligently gone through the subjects demanded at the B. L. examination, he should be required, as a preliminary to examination for the degree, to put in a certificate from the Professor of Law at the Presi-

* *Vide* Statistical Table III

dency College, or some other person delivering lectures with the sanction of the Syndicate, of his having attended certain courses of lectures on Law, and of his having passed an examination in the subjects of the lectures. The same year the fee for admission to the First Examination in Arts was raised from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20. The change was rendered appropriate by the prolongation of the F. A. course from one year to two years. It was long felt by the Syndicate that sufficient prominence was not given by the University to the study of Physical Science. Indeed, except as an optional subject in the examinations for the B. A. and M. A. degrees, Physical Science did not appear at all in the curriculum of studies. To remedy this defect, it was decided in 1874-75 that all candidates for Matriculation should be examined in Physical Geography and in the elements of Physics, the works on these subjects in the Science Primer Series being adopted as text-books. In the First in Arts examination all candidates were to be examined in Physiology as contained in Professor Huxley's Elementary Lessons on that subject. As it was not considered either desirable or possible to increase the amount of the student's work, it was resolved to omit English History from the list of Matriculation subjects, and Geography from the F. A. scheme, while Indian History in the latter examination was made to give way to Freeman's General Sketch of European History. The changes in the Matriculation examination came into operation in December 1875, and those in the F. A. in December 1876. For the B. A. degree Physical Science was retained as an optional subject, and the course of study improved. Another change of some importance effected in 1874-75 was the removal of Logic as an optional subject with Trigonometry from the F. A. examination. After December 1875, all candidates were obliged to take up

Trigonometry, but after passing they were left free to follow the bent of their inclinations, and for the B. A. degree they were allowed their choice between Mathematics, pure and mixed, Logic and Moral Philosophy, and Physical Science. Bye-laws were also passed, designed to give greater importance to Translation and Composition in all the Arts examinations, and in the Matriculation examination the weight previously attached to getting up the text-books in English was greatly diminished by the provision that in future one of the two papers in that language should consist wholly of passages for paraphrase, and not taken from the text-books, and questions in the language generally, all matters connected with the text-books being confined to the second paper. In 1873-74, a new degree in Medicine, or rather perhaps an old degree revived, the Licentiatehip in Medicine and Surgery, was established. In 1875-76 the scheme of examination for the M. A. degree was entirely remodelled. Formerly all the Examiners were at liberty, and those in language were required, to put *vivâ voce* questions to the candidates. This portion of the examination was abolished. In the first branch (Language) and in the second branch (Mathematics) changes were made in the subjects and in the books prescribed. The third branch formerly comprised Zoology and Animal Physiology, Botany and Vegetable Physiology, Geology and Mineralogy, Chemistry, Electricity, and Magnetism. No one ever passed in this branch, as the range of subjects prescribed was far too extensive. These subjects were distributed so as to constitute two distinct branches. The third or Physical Science branch comprising (1) Experimental Physics, including Light, Heat, Sound, Electricity and Magnetism; (2) Chemistry, Inorganic and Organic, including a knowledge of Quantitative Analysis; (3) Geology, Mineralogy and

Palæontology ; while the new fourth branch (Biology) comprised (1) Botany and Vegetable Physiology, (2) Zoology and Palæontology, and (3) Physiology, Animal and Comparative. The old fourth branch comprised Logic, History, Moral Philosophy and Political Economy. The new fifth branch (Mental Philosophy and Sociology) retained three of these subjects, but substituted Psychology and Morals for Moral Philosophy. The general effect of these various changes was to make the Degree of Master of Arts somewhat easier of attainment than it had hitherto been, so as to increase the number of candidates presenting themselves for it. The *vivâ voce* part of the examination was abolished, owing to practical difficulties in conducting this portion of the examination. In 1875-76 an important change was also made in the constitution of the Syndicate. This body had hitherto consisted of the Vice-Chancellor and six Fellows, three of whom belonged to the Faculty of Arts, and three to the Faculty of Law, Medicine and Engineering. It was felt that the Syndicate was not sufficiently representative, and two additional members were accordingly added to the Faculty of Arts. In 1876-77, at the request of Government, Col. Macdonald, the Director of Public Instruction, brought before the Syndicate the question of making the University more self-supporting. Certain changes were accordingly made, which resulted in a saving to the University. Hitherto there had been ten papers of three hours each for the Matriculation examination. This examination was curtailed by four hours, which were deducted from the papers in Mathematics and Geography. The *vivâ voce* portion of the B. A. Degree examination was also abolished, and the marks allotted to the several subjects redistributed. Another series of changes was rendered necessary to check an abuse which was beginning to show itself in connection

with what was known as the general meeting of Examiners. The Matriculation Examiners had hitherto held a meeting at which each Examiner was required to submit his papers, and also the value which he intended to assign to each question, and, in the event of a difference of opinion, the decision of the majority of Examiners present prevailed. There were similar bye-laws for the F. A. and B. A. examination. For the M. A. examination the rule was different, as although a meeting was held at which each Examiner was required to submit his papers to his colleagues for remarks and suggestions, the adoption of them was left to his own discretion. This latter rule seemed *primâ facie* a better one than the former, under which a paper prepared by an Examiner selected for his special knowledge of some one particular subject was subjected to criticisms of those who had no such special knowledge. A good Sanskrit or Tamil scholar was not necessarily a competent judge of a Mathematical paper, or a Mathematician of a paper in Chemistry. The new bye-laws prescribed that at the Matriculation, F. A. and B. A. examinations, each Examiner shall submit his paper together with the marks he intended to assign to each question to his colleagues in the same subject for remarks and suggestions, but the adoption of them was left to the Examiner's own discretion. The general meeting of Examiners was thus abolished. Section XII of the Act of Incorporation provides that, except by special order of the Senate, no person shall be admitted as a candidate for any Degree unless he produces a certificate that he has completed the prescribed course of instruction from an institution authorized in that behalf by the Governor of Fort St. George in Council. For twenty years this section was practically a dead letter. The grace of the Senate on the day of Convocation authorizing admission to Degrees

had been held to be a sufficient compliance with its requirements, and private students in any numbers and without any special permission were allowed to present themselves for examination. For many reasons this was felt to be an unsatisfactory state of things, and after some years of discussion and consideration the law and the practice of the University were brought into harmony by G. O. No. 225, of the 24th May 1877. Private students were not entirely excluded from the University Examinations, but under the revised bye-laws any student of this description before presenting himself for this examination was required to obtain the express sanction of the Syndicate.* The revised rules, however, did not deal with the case of students who, having produced the required certificate for a certain examination and having failed to pass, presented themselves at the next or any subsequent examination. In 1878-79, the only change of importance was the raising of the fees for admission to certain examinations in Law and Medicine. In 1879-80, the test in English for the M. A. Degree was rendered more severe in the language branch by enacting that candidates failing

* The following were the rules of affiliation approved by Government :—

1. Institutions or Departments of Institutions may be affiliated to the University of Madras in Arts, Law, Medicine and Civil Engineering.

2. The power of affiliating rests, subject to the sanction of the Governor of Fort St. George in Council, with the Syndicate to whom all applications for affiliation must be addressed through the Registrar.

3. In the case of a Government Institution, application must be made by the Director of Public Instruction or other chief Educational Officer of the Province in which it is situated; in the case of any other institution, by the Principal or other responsible officer.

4. Every application must be countersigned by two members of the Senate.

to obtain 40 per cent. of the marks allotted to this language, its literature, and to Prose Composition therein shall not pass. Formerly, in order to pass in the language branch of the M. A. Degree examination, it was not necessary that a candidate should secure a minimum number of marks in each language, or even a minimum number in English. Candidates for the Degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering were required to produce a certificate of having studied eighteen months in an institution affiliated to the University in Civil Engineering. The third change was a concession in favour of candidates for the Degree of Bachelor of Medicine and Master in Surgery by permitting candidates who had commenced their studies for the L. M. and S. Degree without having passed the First Examination in Arts, should they subsequently pass that test and desire to qualify themselves for the above Degree, to count such professional courses as they had attended before passing the First Examination in Arts. In 1880-81, in the curriculum prescribed for the Matriculation Examination, Chemistry was substituted for Physical Geography and the marks assigned for Physics and Geography

5. The application must contain—

- (a) A statement showing the present staff of teachers and the course of study in the faculty in which affiliation is desired.
- (b) A declaration that the institution has the means of educating up to the standard under which it desires to be affiliated.
- (c) Satisfactory assurance of there being a fair prospect that the institution will be maintained on the present footing for five years.

6. The Syndicate will once in three years revise the list of affiliated institutions; and, in the event of an institution changing its course of instruction or ceasing to possess the means of educating up to the prescribed standard, the Syndicate may, with the sanction of the Governor of Fort St. George in Council, withdraw the privilege of affiliation from such institution.

were readjusted. These changes were brought into force from December 1881. Latin was omitted from the scheme of the Preliminary Scientific Examination in Medicine in 1880-81.

During the decade ending March 31st, 1881, some Female Education. desirable progress was made in Female Education. The number of girls receiving instruction rose, during this period, from 10,185 to 32,355. Of High schools for girls there were at the close of 1881 eight with 38 pupils, while of Middle schools there were twenty-five English and seven Vernacular with 316 and 58 pupils, respectively. In his report of 1880-81, Mr. H. B. Grigg, the Director of Public Instruction, expressed his strong conviction that for progress in Female Education there were essential (a) Normal Schools, (b) Government agency. The following extract from his *Report on Elementary Education* shews the extent of elementary education for girls in 1880-81 :—

“So far little has been done by Government directly for the education of girls, but about ten years ago a Normal school was established at Madras for the education of teachers for native Girls’ schools, but it has become in great measure a high school for East Indians and Europeans, and during its existence has only educated 60 Hindu and native Christian teachers. Some five or six years ago the Government undertook the charge of a few elementary schools for girls which had been established by some Local Fund Boards and Municipalities. With one or two exceptions they are all doing fair work, but are mostly in a very elementary condition. Only four of these twelve schools are situated in towns of any importance. In addition to the Girls’ schools maintained by Government, there were in 1879-80 ten Girls’ schools maintained by Municipalities and thirteen by Local Fund Boards. But although the Government have done as yet little by direct action for female education, they have aided liberally private enterprise, but as yet with the exception of the towns of Madras and Tinnevely, Rajahmundry and Cocanada, private effort has not been very successful. But at

the same time there are but few large towns in the Presidency in which a mission society is not offering facilities for female education, and in many cases of late, more especially, the education of the girls of the higher caste. In Tinnevely, in particular, in pursuance of the policy inaugurated by Mr. Lash of the Church Missionary Society, who developed the Sarah Tucker female training school into an institution mainly for the training of girls of the respectable classes, who would be suitable for teachers in caste schools, between two and three thousand girls are studying in small elementary schools, maintained by the Church Missionary Society in different parts of the district, mostly under the management of a trained mistress assisted by her husband. The Sarah Tucker institution turned out in 1879-80 no less than 35 school-mistresses of the second and third grades. Mistresses educated in this institution are in demand through the Tamil districts, both in mission and secular schools, but it is difficult to induce them to take service far from their houses, except at comparatively speaking high salaries. To supply the demand for female teachers in the central Tamil districts, a training school is about to be opened at Trichinopoly, under the auspices of the S. P. G. Society. There is a Normal Class attached to the Free Church Female Christian Institution, Madras, which produces some five or six teachers annually to the first, second, and third grades; and in the Northern Circars I understand that the agents of the Church Missionary Society have in contemplation the establishment of a Normal Class or school in connection with their boarding institution for girls at Masulipatam. In most parts of the Presidency there is a general desire for the elementary education of young girls springing up, and this desire is being stimulated by the action of Municipalities; but until the supply of trained female teachers is adequate to the demand, the progress of female education cannot be very rapid. In many Girls' Schools, and some of them the most important in the Presidency, *viz.*, the Maharaja of Vizianagaram Schools at Madras and at Rajamundry, the teaching and management are practically entrusted to male teachers, and some of them are admirably managed, especially the Maharaja's School at Rajamundry. But the employment of male teachers has the great disadvantage of checking the tendency of permitting girls to remain at school after they have come to a marriageable age. Still male agency is not suddenly to be discarded,

and years must elapse before native female teachers of sufficient age, standing and character are available for the charge of important institutions for the education of girls. Owing to the system of early marriage, and the risks to female life in this country, the proportion of female teaching power produced each year, which will not be ultimately available for teaching, is very large."

In 1880, the Secretary of State sanctioned the appointment of an Inspectress of Girls' Schools on a salary of Rs. 400, rising by biennial increments of Rs. 20 to Rs. 500. This appointment was rendered necessary not only in the interests of female education generally, but also to relieve the Inspector of the Presidency Division, whose work, including the inspection of upwards of fifty Girls' schools, had become too heavy for one officer to perform efficiently. It was also hoped that by the aid of such an official some of the difficulties in the way of promoting the education of ladies of zenanas and their daughters might be removed, especially as several influential native gentlemen had expressed a strong desire for such instruction. Mrs. Isabel Brander, who was nominated to the newly-created post, assumed charge of her office on the 3rd June 1880. Mr. Grigg, writing in 1881 of her work, said :—"The deep interest which she takes in the cause of female education, the efficient manner in which she has been discharging her inspectorial duties, and the sympathy she is eliciting among a section of the Madras Native community in the important branch of educational activity entrusted to her care, fully justify the creation of the appointment, and will, I trust, in time warrant the extension of the sphere of her usefulness." The successful career of Mrs. Brander as an educational officer for the past 15 years shews that the above expectations have been more than realized. At first she was in charge of the Girls' schools in

the town of Madras, and after sometime the Girls' schools in the Nellore and Chingleput Districts were transferred to her. The Teachers' certificate examinations were found in some respects very inappropriate tests for girls in secondary schools and hence Col. Macdonald in 1879 proposed the institution of an examination styled the Higher Examination for Women, which was to be on a level with the Matriculation Examination. This examination was first held in 1881 and was abolished in 1892. During the twelve years it was in existence it did a great deal to stimulate the secondary education of girls in the Presidency.

Progress of
Primary Edu-
cation.

The following remarks of Mr. H. B. Grigg, in his special report on elementary education, written in 1881, traces its progress between 1870-71 and 1880-81, and indicates the directions in which he looked for further development:—"In 1870-71 there were only twenty-two schools affording elementary education under the direct management of Government, which added to 79 Primary schools attached to colleges, high and middle schools, raised the total to 101. But not a few of the Government schools then classed as middle were only affording education which would, under the changed classification, more fitly appear under Primary. The Primary schools consisted chiefly of the schools in the hill tracts of Ganjam. In 1874-75 in consequence of Municipal and Local Fund schools being classified as Government instead of private as hitherto, the number of Government schools rose to 533 and primary departments to 157 or 690 in all. In 1879-80 the total number had risen to 1,333, but the primary departments which are not shown separately had probably decreased. In 1880-81 the total had fallen to 1,232 in consequence of certain "combined" schools being treated as private instead of Government. The growing attendance at many Government schools

in the mofussil has rendered it necessary in the past two or three years to abolish the primary departments in order to prevent undue crowding and to set the funds at disposal of Government to strengthen the teaching staff of the middle and high school departments. It has also been felt desirable to encourage Municipalities and Local Fund Boards to step in and take upon them their proper responsibilities as the promoters of elementary education. According to the scheme for remodelling Second Grade colleges and high schools, the lowest class in these institutions is the lower fourth and third class respectively. The Middle schools are also working above their standard, and thus the primary classes, upper and lower, or lower only have been abolished in many institutions. The consequence of this policy is that in several towns the Municipal commissions and in some few cases Local Fund Boards have established good primary institutions, or are engaged in developing the primary institutions already established, and thus rendering them suitable feeders for the higher schools. The existence of these schools unquestionably tends to develop an interest in education among the native members of commissions and local boards and is an unmixed advantage to the population concerned, who, if the fees are low, soon learn to send their children to well-conducted public schools instead of to small and inefficient verandah schools. It is with pleasure that I proceed in the next place to draw attention to the great increase in aided institutions, the number being 4,625 in 1879-80, and 5,845 in 1880-81 against 2,414 in 1870-71. The increase, I need hardly state, is mainly confined to small village and verandah or pyal schools, either of long standing or of recent origin, which have gradually been brought under the influence of our educational system, and are now beginning in some

measure to reap the reward of the perseverance of their teachers. Great though this increase has been, the number of aided institutions, *i. e.*, roughly speaking, of institutions which are capable of giving elementary education, efficiently or inefficiently according to the English methods, is still extremely small compared with the population concerned, even when Government Schools are taken into account. As in 1880-81 there were 7,077 of these two descriptions of institutions for a population of 31,300,000, it follows that there was only one school to every 4,400 persons or approximately one school for every 730 children of school-going age. But it is satisfactory to find that, though checked by the famine, there has on the whole been a great increase in number of unaided schools, that is, to all interests and purposes, of schools which are preparing gradually to enter into the category of aided institutions. There were only 936 such institutions in 1870-71, and 1,774 in 1871-72, whilst in 1879-80 the number was 4,148 and in 1880-81, 5,215. Each year the vacancies caused in this class by the passage of schools to the aided list have been more than supplied, the famine years excepted, by additions from the great outside educational world. These additions are frequently schools of some standing, although the teachers may have been constantly changing, after the manner of pyal teachers in many districts, whilst others are schools which have been brought into existence by private adventurers unconnected with the hereditary or customary teaching classes, often mere boys who having gained a little knowledge proceed to seek for a livelihood, permanent or temporary, by teaching. Whatever drawbacks the result system may have, and they are considerable, though in great measure, the evils result from the present rules and not from the system, it is un-

rivalled as a means of stimulating private effort both in town and country, more especially when controlled and applied not by a centralized Government Education department but by boards with local knowledge and sympathies working through that department. The following figures show the increase in schools connected with the department from 1870-71 to 1880-81, eleven years. The increase is greatest in Tanjore, next in Tinnevely, but also very considerable in the districts of the Northern Circars, and in Malabar :—

Districts.	1870-71.	1880-81.	Increase.
Ganjam	64	641	577
Vizagapatam	69	634	565
Godavery	123	749	626
Kistna	68	787	719
Bellary	132	726	594
Cuddapah	183	430	247
Kurnool	132	319	187
Nellore	230	699	469
Madras	33	336	303
Chingleput	145	599	454
South Arcot	195	649	454
North Arcot	152	638	486
Salem	110	379	269
Trichinopoly	34	423	389
Tanjore	45	880	835
Madura	262	869	607
Tinnevely	264	1,087	823
Coimbatore	345	530	185
Nilghiri	—	23	23
Malabar	148	746	598
South Canara	73	148	75
Total ...	2,807	12,292	9,485

“Taking schools of the three classes together, there were in all 12,292. or one school for about every 2,550 people, or one school for every 450 children of school-going age ; or considering that few of the schools are Girls’ schools, about one school for every 200 boys. In the ten years ending 1879-80 the number of

pupils receiving elementary education in schools connected with the department increased from 90,605 to 247,771, the proportion of pupils to the population calculated per hundred being $\cdot 7914$ against $\cdot 2894$. In the year 1880-81, the number had risen to 304,304, and the proportion to population on the census of 1881 to $\cdot 9826$. The proportion of pupils in towns during this period has advanced rather more rapidly than in rural tracts, though the difference is not great. It is a very noteworthy fact, and one that cannot be ignored or explained away that the districts whose towns in the aggregate have more than 5 per cent. of their population, or, roughly, one child in three—or if girls are excluded, about two boys in three—under instruction are districts the education of whose town population has been mainly left to private effort. In the town of Coimbatore, where the Government have never established a school, there are probably more. In Tinnevely, in Palamcottah, in Masulipatam, in Nellore the proportion is also higher. In Coimbatore the higher schools are all more or less of a missionary character; but in Tinnevely and Palamcottah, in Masulipatam, and in Nellore there are strong Hindu secular as well as good Mission Schools. The rivalry may not be wholesome in some of its effects upon education, but it certainly tends to its extension, both directly and indirectly."

Education of poor Euro-
pean and Eu-
rasian Chil-
dren.

In May 1878 Government reviewed a collection of supplemental reports on the condition and educational requirements of the European and Eurasian population submitted by the Collectors through the Board of Revenue. The following is an extract from this order :—

"These papers entirely confirm the view adopted by Government in their Proceedings, dated the 26th July 1875, No. 236, that in the matter of the education of children of pauper

Europeans and Eurasians in this Presidency the necessities of the case are neither great nor pressing. The whole number of such children in 1875-76 seems to have been inconsiderable, and a large proportion of those—who, though not paupers, were at that date not being educated, though of school-going age—were, the children of railway employés, to whose case attention has since been specially given by the Directors of the Railway Companies and their Agents. His Grace the Governor in Council would again press the subject on their attention, and desires that particular attention may be directed to the case at the next census, in view to accurate statistics being collected. As regards other children, it seems to His Grace in Council that all that is necessary is to direct the special attention of the Director of Public Instruction and his Inspectors to the subject, in view to the admission of such children as free scholars in Government and aided schools, where the inability of their parents to pay the fees is established. Col. Macdonald's attention will be specially invited to the subject as to one to which the Government attach much importance, and with which it appears to them that the Educational Department is perfectly competent to deal adequately if the requisite exertions be made to trace out the cases, which are evidently very few, by aid of the District officers. His Grace in Council would also enlist the services of all Chaplains in the Government service and of Roman Catholic Priests in the matter. The Government do not admit the objection suggested on the score of impartiality of treatment as compared with the native population. The pauper European and Eurasian is really infinitely more destitute than the pauper native, and some education is really infinitely more essential to enable them to earn a livelihood, while, as an uneducated and desperate class, they are calculated to be infinitely more dangerous and expensive to the community. In the interests of all it is advisable to train them to earn an honest living. The question of industrial training is a large one, but must evidently be dealt with separately from that of primary instruction for these scattered units. The Government think that a central Industrial School, to which they might be drafted, is not impracticable."

Though Government passed orders in 1878 for the admission of poor Europeans and Eurasians as free scholars in the Government and aided schools, little

help was afforded under this order, until, in the following year, Government specified the conditions under which aid would be given : (1) The education must be elementary ; (2) the children must be below the age of 16 ; (3) the parent's income must be under 16 Rs. per mensem. Under these conditions the Director was authorized to pay from Provincial Funds the fees of such children in private schools at the fee rates prescribed for aided schools. Private charity was not to be superseded. The following were some of the schools which were specially intended chiefly for poor Europeans and Eurasians ; Civil Orphan Asylum, Madras ; Christ Church School, Madras ; St. John's Vestry Orphanage School, Trichinopoly ; Lawrence Asylum, Ootacamund ; Day School, Coonoor ; Military Female Orphan Asylum and Civil Orphan Asylum, Madras ; Union School, John Pieriera's ; and Nazareth Convent School, Ootacamund.

Muhammadan
Education.

In 1872-73, special action was taken with the object of advancing education among the Muhammadan community. By desire of His Excellency the Governor, Mr. E. B. Powell consulted some Mussalman gentlemen of intelligence and position as to the moves they thought expedient, and obtained from each a memorandum conveying his views : these memoranda, together with a report from the Director, were laid before His Excellency. In their order, No. 288, of the 7th October 1872, Government decided that Elementary Schools for Mussalmans should be set on foot at the chief centres of Muhammadan population, and that in these schools instruction should be given in Hindustani and English, in order to qualify the pupils for admission into the higher classes of Zillah and Provincial Schools, and other similar institutions. In their order, Government stated that they agreed with Colonel Macdonald in regarding it necessary that

Muhammadans should be taught separately from Hindus up to a certain point, though, when receiving general instruction through English, they would rather gain than lose by being associated with Hindus. Elementary schools for Mussalmans were established at Rajahmundry, Ellore, Masulipatam, Kurnool, Adoni, Cuddapah, Arcot, Vellore, Trichinopoly, Nagore and other towns. In Malabar, special encouragement in Grants-in-Aid was held out to schools for Mappillas, and other arrangements were introduced in order to advance education among that class. When the Results system was brought into operation, Mussalman teachers did not come forward for Government aid, consequently a scheme of examination was not laid down for Mussalman schools. To meet the want, a scheme was drawn up in January 1873, with the aid of some experienced gentlemen, European, Mussalman and Hindu. Owing to the want of a special Inspecting agency, considerable difficulty was felt at the outset in arranging for the examination of Mussalman schools thinly scattered over certain portions of the Presidency. To Mr. Garthwaite, the Inspector of Schools, belongs the honor of organizing the system of Mappilla education in the Malabar. The history of the origin of the movement by which the Mappilla schools were brought under inspection is given in the following extract from Mr. Garthwaite's report for 1871-72 :—

“ A striking feature in the history of lower class education in Malabar this year has been the carrying out a plan to bring under inspection the Mappilla schools (in Malabar) of which there is one attached to every Mosque. These at present are scarcely worthy of the name of school; the children learn nothing except to read the Kuran without understanding it. I had long meditated getting these schools under inspection and having the rudiments of a real education taught in them; but my going home interrupted my plans, and during my absence nothing was done. On my return

(in 1872), I, at my own expense, made some experiments in this direction, and found that liberal pecuniary treatment was quite sufficient to overcome the prejudices of the Mappillas as regards vernacular education, though they still objected to English. As vernacular education, not English, was my object, this sufficed. I accordingly arranged a scheme which I submitted to you and to the Collector (of Malabar) as President of the Local Fund Board of that district. By this scheme more favourable result grant rules were permitted for Mappila schools, and special Inspecting Schoolmasters of their own faith were appointed to organize their schools, and mostly stipends of Rupees 4 (since reduced to Rupees 2) were given to the Mappila Masters.

“ It will be observed that in the Calicut Circle there is an increase since the previous year of 44 schools and 896 scholars ; the attendance at the schools previously under inspection was reduced by cholera, and to a certain account counterbalanced the increase brought by the new schools. In the Tellicherry Circle the increase in the number of schools was 10 and scholars 299. Thus the whole Malabar shows an increase of 54 schools and 1,195 scholars. The amount of grant earned has increased considerably, not only absolutely but also in proportion to the attendance—satisfactory evidence that the instruction is improving. The item for stipends is not a satisfactory one. At present it does not, as in the case of Hindu schools on the combined system, represent money paid to certificated masters, but is merely the means to enable the Mappilla master to engage the services of some Hindu Assistant competent to teach the standards, the Mappilla masters or Managers themselves being in general not able to do this. Government is urgent in demanding of the Boards that in the matter of stipends the Mappilla schools shall be put on the same footing as the Hindu ones. but in the present dearth of Mappillas possessing even the most elementary education and of certificated Hindu teachers this would leave most of the Mappilla schools without any teacher competent to earn a grant. The men at present engaged as assistants without the stipends could not find means of subsistence until the grant was earned, while the Mappilas have not yet been long enough in the enjoyment of education for any number of young relatives of the masters to be available as assistants as in Hindu Indigenous schools is now often the case. Hence, if Government insists upon the com-

plete withdrawal of the stipends, a check will be given to Mappila education. I need not say that the education of Mahomedans in this Presidency, and of Mappillas especially, is not so advanced as to require any check at present. There are peculiar difficulties in spreading education amongst the Mappillas of North Malabar. Possessing a rude alphabet of their own, and also using freely the Arabic character for Malayalam—spite of its utter want of adaptation—they are satisfied with thus the means of reading and writing, however imperfect these means may be. Hence, while the Mappilas of South Malabar, who use the ordinary Malayalam character, welcome Malayalam instruction, those of the North despise it. Moreover, the religious teachers in the North are more suspicious of secular education, and more opposed to it than the same class in the South, although why it should be so I do not know. The following extract, from the report of the Inspecting Schoolmaster—himself that *alba cornix*, an educated Mappilla—may serve to illustrate the above remarks. “By persevering exertion two schools were brought under inspection in the Kottayam Taluq, but to my utter disappointment three days after, both the Managers came and said to me in an angry way that they were unwilling to teach the Vernacular to their pupils. When I asked the reason, I was told by them that they in a dream saw the Moollahs enter the gate of Paradise, but when they attempted to do so they were thrown back by the angels saying that they would not be admitted, because their object in teaching the Kurān is not for meritorious purpose, but merely for gain.”

In 1880-81 there were in all 11 Government schools and 9 Municipal schools for the special education of Muhammadans. Of the 11 Government schools, 7 were Anglo-Vernacular Middle schools and the remaining four Anglo-Vernacular Primary. Salem had a Municipal Anglo-Vernacular Primary school and Bellary 5 Municipal Hindustani schools. The towns of Tanjore, Combaconum, and Cochin had each a Municipal Hindustani school. Of Aided schools, with special provision for Muhammadan pupils, may be mentioned the Harris school, intended solely for Muhammadans, the Mission schools at Ellore, Masuli-

patam, and Trichinopoly, and 210 Vernacular schools, with 6,353 pupils, aided on the results system in Malabar. Other educational facilities afforded to Muhammadans were the following :—

- (a) Arabic and Persian were recognized as classical languages for the Matriculation and Arts Examinations from the establishment of the University, each with a maximum of marks about one-fifth as large again as that allotted to a Vernacular language.
- (b) Muhammadan pupils were charged only half fees.
- (c) Originally three Scholarships were provided for the special encouragement of Muhammadans, one being awarded on the results of the F. A. Examination and two on the results of the Matriculation. In 1879 four additional Scholarships were sanctioned on the results of the Matriculation Examination, and this system, under which seven Scholarships were annually awarded, continued for some time.
- (d) A Special Deputy Inspector of Muhammadan Schools was appointed.
- (e) An elementary Normal School in Madras for Muhammadans was started.

As regards the employment of Muhammadans in the Public Service, the Board of Revenue stated in 1875 that “every opportunity is afforded to Muhammadans to enter the public service,” and expressed its opinion that “Muhammadans, as a rule, are aware that, if qualified, their claims to enter the service will meet with favourable consideration.” Government observed on this “there is no reason to doubt that a great obstacle to the more general employment of Muhammadans in the public service is the absence of effort on their own part to qualify themselves educationally for other than the lowest posts.” The Government, however, trusted that the efforts which were being made to promote their education would bear fruit in the near future. As to whether the means

of education at the command of the Muhammadans were sufficient there might have been doubt. There were none that greater use of the means available might have been made. Their primary education was encouraged in this Presidency by the Special Primary Standards laid down for Muhamadan schools. In these Hindustani was recognized as the vernacular language, and the other subjects, *viz.*, Arithmetic and Geography, were taught and examined in Hindustani. In the Third and Fourth Standards an optional language came in, and the following rules applied to these standards :—

- (1) “The 2nd language in the case of Hindustani-speaking Mussulmans to be either “English, Persian, or the Hindu Vernacular of the district in which the school is situated, only one language to be accepted.”
- (2) “If the Mussulmans speak a Hindu Vernacular, they are to be allowed to adopt “either English, Hindustani, or Persian as their second language.”

So far back as the year 1869, Government contemplated the establishment of a Public Examination for Middle schools. In G. O., No. 174, dated 17th May 1869, Government called upon the Director of Public Instruction to report upon the expediency of establishing a system of Scholarships for Middle class schools to be determined by means of an examination conducted by the Educational Department. The establishment of such an examination, they considered, would not only be a means of testing and stimulating the progress of Middle schools, but would also enable Government and the public to judge of the comparative merits of these schools. The scheme proposed was somehow not given effect to that year, nor was the question taken up till in October 1875, when Col. Macdonald, the then Director of Public Instruction, brought before the Syndicate of the Madras Uni-

The Middle School and other public Examinations.

versity a proposal to institute an examination for Middle class schools on the model of the local examinations of Oxford and Cambridge. The following were some of the reasons which he adduced for the necessity for establishing such an examination:—(1) The staff of inspecting officers was not sufficient to examine thoroughly and efficiently all the Middle schools; the work was done very imperfectly, and several schools were not even visited by the inspecting officers; (2) the examination if instituted would be a fit substitute for a number of examinations* more or less of the same standard,

* (1) Uncovenanted Civil Service, English and Anglo-Vernacular branches.

(2) Teachers' Certificate Examination, Fourth Grade.

(3) Medical College, Second Department, Entrance Examination, also Examination for Hospital Apprentices.

(4) Civil Engineering College, Second Department, Entrance Examination.

which he considered unnecessary; (3) the Middle Class Examination, as it was then called, would test adequately the fitness of a candidate to enter the preparatory Matriculation Class of a Government or Aided School; (4) a scheme of Scholarships might be established in connection with this examination; (5) the institution of such an examination would greatly reduce the cost of Normal Schools

training pupils for the IVth Standard, as the work of such schools would be confined to training men for teachers. The question of establishing a Middle Class Examination was discussed at two meetings of the Senate, but the proposal was rejected by eleven votes to eight. Colonel Macdonald then came to the conclusion that such an examination might be worked without the aid of the University. In the meantime, the Committee assembled under the order of the Government of India of 3rd July 1875, to propose revised forms for the submission of statistical returns, also recommended strongly the establishment of such an

examination. Their resolution embodying this recommendation runs as follows :—" In every province standards of examination shall be fixed, corresponding with the above grades or divisions of schools. These shall be called the Middle School Examination, the Primary School Examination, and the Lower Primary School Examination. The Middle School Examination shall qualify for admission to a High school, the Primary School Examination for admission to a Middle school, and the Lower Primary School Examination for admission to the Upper division of a Primary school." The object of the Committee was clear. They aimed at introducing into the educational system throughout the country somewhat uniform standards, which they considered, impossible to reach, unless there was a uniform system of examinations for testing pupils at each definite stage of instruction. In the rules of the Committee framed for the preparation of statistical returns, the definition of a Middle school runs as follows :—" Middle Schools shall include pupils who have passed the Upper Primary School Examination, and are reading for an examination to be styled the Middle School Examination." It was, however, only in 1877 that the proposal to institute such an examination for Middle schools came up definitely before Government. Colonel Macdonald, in the month of April, (*vide* letter, No. 1716, dated 20th April 1877, embodied in G. O., No. 242, dated 9th June 1877), submitted a draft Notification embodying the details of the scheme. He proposed that the examination should be thrown open to girls as well as to boys, and that the standard should correspond with that of the Upper IVth Class of a Government or aided school. He also suggested certain alternative subjects, such as Physical Geography and Physiology or Hygiene, being substituted, instead of Vernacular, Euclid and Algebra. Government, in their order re-

ferred to above, approved of the principles of the examination, and believed that the "system would conduce to public convenience;" but they considered that the University should co-operate in the scheme; for they remarked, "it would be a matter of regret to the Government if the University should not take, as in England, the most prominent part of the conduct of such an examination. The question, therefore, came up again before the Senate, but the proposal was rejected this time also. The Senate remarked that they had "to deal only with examinations which are avowedly part of or preliminary (as Matriculation) to a University course, but cannot undertake examinations to test the progress of teaching at a more immature stage of study, and which are not undergone as a preliminary to a University course." The opposition of the Senate to the introduction of the examination seems to have been strong, for the Vice-Chancellor, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Innes, writing to Government, said that "many members of the Senate of considerable experience in education objected to it, on the ground that its probable effect upon real sound teaching would be injurious." Colonel Macdonald, in August 1877, brought the subject again before Government, and asked for sanction to introduce the examination in the form originally proposed, but Government declined to move in the matter then. (*Vide* G. O., 23rd August 1877, No. 323). At the beginning of 1879 he once more brought up the scheme before Government with reference to the resolution of Simla Conference referred to already. He suggested that the Middle School Examination might take the place of the General Test, and be placed under the Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examinations, as the latter test had failed to serve the ends for which it was instituted. He also recommended that this examination should be considered a service test for

appointments of Rs. 15 and upwards, but not exceeding Rs. 30. Government were disposed to allow the Middle School Examination to supersede the general test, but final orders were not passed till September 1879.* The Middle School Examination was held, for

* *Vide* G. O. No. 364,
dated 24th September
1879.

the first time in January 1880, under Government Notification of 17th October 1879. For this examination 1,769 male and 9 female candidates appeared, of whom 1,050 and 8 passed respectively. There was a second examination held that year in December, and since then up to 1889 examinations were held regularly once every year. In 1890 two examinations were held, one in May and one in December:—

Middle School Examination.

Year.	NUMBER EXAMINED.		NUMBER PASSED.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1880 ... {	1,769	9	1,050	8
1881 ... {	6,089	174	3,126	68
1882 ...	6,645	245	2,484	104
1883 ...	6,832	200	4,265	157
1884 ...	7,780	275	3,771	188
1885 ...	8,082	276	4,704	191
1886 ...	7,564	324	2,551	89
1887 ...	7,724	458	3,716	281
1888 ...	8,244	469	3,623	265
1889 ...	9,214	423	4,304	287
1890 ...	9,091	421	3,473	326
1890 ...	14,488	546	7,006	289

In proposing to Government the institution of the Middle School Examination, Col. Macdonald suggested that it should become a substitute for the General Test Examination for appointments between Rs. 15 and 30 per mensem. He also proposed to make the

Matriculation Examination the test for appointments between Rs. 30 and 100, to make the F. A. Examination the test for appointments between Rs. 100 and 250, and last to make the B. A. Examination the test for all appointments above that figure. In January 1879 the Government of India suggested the institution of two examinations, besides the Middle School Examination, called the Upper and Lower Primary School Examinations—the Upper Examination to mark the stage at which a pupil may enter upon a course of Secondary education, the Lower the stage when a pupil may begin the preparatory course for the former. In May 1879 Col. Macdonald submitted proposals to Government for the institution of that examination. The rules framed by him were approved in August, and the examinations were held for the first time in December 1879. In 1879 was also instituted the Special Upper Primary Examination which took the place of the examination of the Fifth Grade.

Standing Orders for Government Schools.

In 1856 Sir A. Arbuthnot issued a code of instructions for the guidance of Head Masters of Provincial and Zillah schools, and a somewhat different set of instructions for the Head Masters of Taluk schools. These 'Instructions' contained rules regarding the scheme of study, admission and classification of pupils, school fees, school hours, holidays, examinations, discipline, accounts, correspondence, books, stationery, furniture, slates, copy books, and other similar details, with forms of registers and returns. These rules were supplemented in 1858 by orders passed on the report of a Committee appointed to revise the course of instruction and to report on the text-books in use and division into classes of Government schools. Many portions of these instructions were superseded or modified by late orders, and other portions, although not formally repealed, became obsolete owing to the numerous

changes which had taken place from time to time. Col. Macdonald, during his term of office, introduced some important administrative reforms. A revised curriculum was published, the number of school hours was reduced to admit of more time being devoted to home exercises and paper work, scattered holidays were commuted with a view to the summer vacation being lengthened, attendance in schools was strictly enforced, holiday tasks were prescribed, changes were made in the scale of school fees, greater regularity in the collection and remittance of school fees was insisted on, a system of physical training was prescribed, comparative examinations were established, the rules regarding stipendiary scholarships were revised, school-libraries were instituted in Middle-class schools, rules were laid down regarding school-libraries generally, a system of graded salaries was introduced into a large number of schools, and miscellaneous orders were issued on various other points. In the early part of 1879 a revised curriculum was published for Mahammadan schools. Several other changes were made, but instead of being published separately, they were embodied in the Standing Orders. Among these may be mentioned a curriculum for Government Girls' Schools and a curriculum for Sanskrit classes. A weekly examination on paper was instituted in all Government schools, and rules were laid down to regulate promotions in some of the middle and lower classes of schools. The system of awarding free Scholarships was revised. The attention of all masters was drawn to some points connected with the moral training of the pupils entrusted to their charge, and rules were laid down on various minor points which it is unnecessary to specify. The Standing Orders applied in a general way to Normal schools and contained some forms of registers and returns specially intended for such schools. It may

be added that the Standing Orders dealt only with schools which were under the direct management of the Educational Department, and that no reference was therefore made in them to the Primary Schools under the Assistant Agent in Ganjam, to the schools in the Bhadrachalam Taluk, to Local Fund and Municipal schools or to aided schools. In April 1876, Government sanctioned certain proposals submitted by Col. Macdonald for remodelling the Government Anglo-Vernacular and Taluq schools. The lowest or purely vernacular class of schools was abolished. The inferior masters, who were thus thrown out of employment, and who severally received very small salaries paid from the school fee fund, were allowed to gain their livelihood by opening Results Schools as feeders to the Government schools, and provided they confined their teaching to the first and second standard, they were allowed to hold their classes in a room or veranda of the Government building. The nomenclature of the classes in the Anglo-Vernacular and Taluq schools was made the same as in the Zillah schools. The scale of school fees was lowered and in some Divisions masters of higher qualifications than those hitherto employed were appointed. When the rules for Results Grants were first promulgated in this Presidency, they were expressly declared to be intended solely for Elementary schools. After the passing of Acts III and IV of 1871, it was considered desirable for financial purposes to view some of these schools as Middle-class schools, and a somewhat indefinite case of demarcation was laid down for the purpose. In November 1875, the line of demarcation was made more rigid and under Government Order No. 828, of the 27th February 1877, all Results Schools were relegated for statistical purposes to the lower class.

Referring to the subject of physical education, Col. Macdonald wrote in 1876, as follows:—"No public funds have been as yet spent in this Presidency on Gymnasia for Colleges and Schools. In some of the larger institutions, presided over by European or East Indian Principals and Headmasters, the pupils play at cricket and foot-ball, and are practised in running, leaping, and other athletic sports, but whatever has been done in this way has been entirely the result of private effort. In October last, when preparing the Budget Estimate for 1876-77, I asked permission to enter Rupees 10,000 for Gymnastic apparatus and teachers, and suggested the expediency of introducing as far as possible the system recommended by Mr. Maclaren in his work on Physical Education. A lump assignment for Gymnasia and other purposes was sanctioned by Government for expenditure during the year 1876-77." At the commencement of the official year 1876-77, Col. Macdonald issued a circular regarding the introduction of a system of physical education into the schools of this Presidency to the Inspectors of Schools, with information regarding the system pursued in the other Presidencies and the amount available for expenditure. Very few replies were received and little or nothing was done during that year to promote this important branch of education. In 1877-78, some progress, but not much, was made in the way of establishing Gymnasia and promoting physical training generally in Government schools. Apparatus was purchased, and an instructor employed, at the Zillah schools of Salem, Cuddappah, and Kurnool, and similar arrangements were made at Bellary, Berhampore and Madura, in the following year. The only aided school which received a grant in 1878-79 for a Gymnastic teacher was Pacheappah's Branch High school, Chidambram. In July 1878, a grant of Rs. 1,137-2-5 was sanctioned for a Gymnasium in the

Physical Education.

People's Park, Madras, intended for the use generally of all the Madras schools. In 1879 Government directed the levy of a reasonable fee in all schools in which a Gymnasium had been established to recoup the expenditure incurred for apparatus and teachers, as all the Government second-grade colleges and first-grade High schools were allowed Gymnastic instructors.

Agricultural
Education.

The general question of Agricultural education came under the consideration of Government in 1872 and 1873, and in the latter year it was decided that the time had not arrived for entering upon a general and comprehensive scheme for the Agricultural education of the people of this Presidency. Government directed, however, that the model and experimental farms at Sydapet should be made as useful as possible to the public, and that district experimental farms should be instituted and provided with competent Superintendents. In devising means for carrying out these orders the Board of Revenue were led to make minute enquiries as to the methods pursued at the Government farms, as to the facilities for training farm Superintendents there, and as to the manner in which the information possessed by Mr. Robertson and his subordinates could best be disseminated. They came to the conclusion that unless systematic instruction in agriculture and the sciences bearing on it were given at the Sydapet farm, competent Superintendents for the experimental farms would be of little or no use; and that the means for giving such a training, the lectures, the students, the opportunities for practising what was taught and the funds were all available. The good effects of such instruction, they thought, would not be limited to a few Superintendents of Government farms, but would slowly leaven the agriculture of the whole country, as

in England, America, France and Germany, and as a scene of systematic instruction open to all comers, the Sydapet farm would be infinitely more useful to the public than it was at the commencement. The First Member dissented, however, from these views, and subsequently the Board requested permission to reconsider the question. They accordingly called on Mr. Robertson for a detailed report on the subject which resulted in his submitting a scheme for the establishment of an Agricultural College. This, he suggested, might be so organized as also to afford a good elementary forest and veterinary education, and he considered that such an institution would bestow upon the country far greater benefits than the Medical or Civil Engineering Colleges, to which, however, in other respects it might be assimilated. The Board of Revenue had in the meantime changed their views, and, although impressed with the importance of the proposed experiment, thought that Mr. Robertson should first obtain a clear and just idea of the real condition of agriculture in the Presidency by making extensive tours. The Third Member of the Revenue Board dissented, however, from these views, and although, Government considered that Mr. Robertson's scheme was far beyond present requirements, they decided that preparatory classes might be instituted, and that courses of lectures might be delivered by Messrs. Robertson and Benson, who were both graduates of the Cirencester College, to a limited number of stipendiary and free students. No reading rooms, library or museum were considered necessary at first, but after two years' experience of the working of the school it was thought that there would be some means of judging whether the experiment was likely to be successful. In July 1875 Mr. Robertson submitted a detailed scheme in the form of a prospectus with an estimate of the cost

of the institution, and the scheme, after having been criticised by the Board of Revenue and the Acting Director of Public Instruction, was reviewed by Government in November and generally approved, but as some modifications were pronounced necessary, a revised prospectus was submitted by Mr. Robertson in March 1876.*

Formation of
Vernacular
Literature.

Mr. E. B. Powell, the Director of Public Instruction, reported in 1873 as follows on the subject of the formation of a Vernacular Literature:—"The formation of a sound Vernacular Literature is a matter of much importance now that vigorous efforts are being made to diffuse elementary education. Such a literature must be mainly of natural growth if it is to have a hold upon the feelings of the people; but its production may be accelerated by judicious encouragement. It must be

*The following are extracts from the Prospectus of the School of Agriculture, Madras, in the form in which it was finally sanctioned in May 1876:—

Objects.—This Institution is designed to afford instruction in the science of Agriculture and in the practical application of sound principles in conducting the ordinary agriculture of this country.

The farm, &c.—The farm is conducted as an experimental farm; its area is about 280 acres, and it is well provided with suitable buildings.

The Educational buildings needed will be erected on the farm on land situated in close proximity to the village of Sydapet, in which village students will readily obtain lodgings, board, &c., during their course of training.

In the farm workshops, all kinds of agricultural implements and tools suited for use in India are manufactured and repaired.

An Agricultural Library is now in the course of formation, and it is in contemplation to provide a reading-room for the use of students. A Veterinary Hospital, A Chemical Laboratory, and an Agricultural Museum, will also be established, as funds are forthcoming.

Instruction, &c.—The course of instruction will extend over three years; there will be two Sessions in each year—A Summer Session and a Winter Session; the Summer Session will begin each year on the 1st of April, and will end on the 30th of June; the Winter Session will begin on the first of October,

owned that very little is being done in this Presidency in the way of forming a vernacular literature ; those natives who have received a fair education seem, as a general rule, to feel little interest in their own language. The Madras School Book and Vernacular Literature Society has for one of its objects the formation of a Vernacular Literature ; it receives an annual grant from Government of Rs. 2,000. Besides bringing out interesting little works from time to time, the society publishes a monthly periodical in Tamil, bearing the title of "Janavinodini," the price of which is 2 Annas a copy. From the first issue of the periodical some three or four years ago up to the 31st December 1872, the total amount derived from its sale was Rupees 515-6-0, while the total expenditure in connexion with it was Rupees 4,273-7-0. It is clear

and will end on the 31st of March. Though in the Winter Session class-room and lecture-room instruction will not begin until the 1st of October, students will, nevertheless, be expected to attend at Sydapet on the 1st of September, in order that they may witness and take part in the important field operations conducted at that Session in connection with the sowing of the cold weather crops.

The instruction given in the Institution will embrace a thorough study of agriculture and of such portions of Chemistry, Geology, Zoology, Botany, and the Veterinary Art as bear on the theory and practice of agriculture. In addition to these special subjects, the following will also receive attention :—English farm Book-keeping, Land Surveying, Mensuration, and Drawing. The instruction will be given by means of lectures, class-room discussions and field classes.

During the portion of the day set apart for practical instruction in farming out of doors, every student will be expected to take part in whatever work is going forward on the farm ; compliance with this regulation will be strictly enforced. Each student will be expected to make himself acquainted with all the operations daily performed in the farm, and will be required to keep a journal or diary of the same.

Instruction will be conveyed in the English language, but the masters will afford as much assistance as possible in explaining the lectures and instruction generally to students whose limited acquaintance with English may make it difficult for them to follow such instruction without explanation.

that the society must rest satisfied with very slow progress; as has been remarked in a former report, there is little reason to expect that natives who are acquainted with English will seek in a vernacular publication the information which they can obtain more fully and more clearly in an English one, while for years to come the masses will adhere to their own indigenous literature, however imperfect and objectionable it may be.

“In 1872 Mr. Burnell of the Civil Service, whose repute as a Sanskrit scholar is widely spread, proposed to Government that assistance should be given to authors in bringing out valuable works on Sanskrit and Indian philology. This proposal was referred to me, and I was desired to report upon it after communication with the Vernacular Literature Society. In reporting upon the subject, I submitted a letter from the Secretary to the Society, and supported the views put forward by that body as to the manner in which Government should aid authors. It was recommended that Government should set aside annually Rs. 3,000 for encouragement of Oriental Literature, and that requests for help on the part of authors should be referred through the Director of Public Instruction to the Society for enquiry and report. At the same time it was explained that the Society was strengthening itself by inviting gentlemen of oriental attainments to join it, either as ordinary or as corresponding members, in order that it might hold such a position as would justify Government and the public in regarding it as a suitable body to decide on the claims of authors. The order passed upon my letter intimated that Government could not sanction the proposed expenditure. It is to be hoped that some plan will be devised for aiding authors in bringing out literary works of real value, but of such a character

as to be unremunerative. Unlike the case in the other Presidencies, there is no provision made in this Presidency for the encouragement of authors."

This Fund, originally the General Education Fund, was formed from the surplus balance of the Devasthanam Funds. A certain amount was set apart for educational buildings under the orders of the late Court of Directors, and was subsequently augmented by transferring to it the unexpended portion of the grant of Rs. 50,000 made annually by the late Court of Directors for native education from 1828-29 to 1854-55. A four per cent. non-transferable treasury note was issued in the same year for ten lakhs of rupees, afterwards reduced in 1868 to eight lakhs. The interest upon this note, after meeting charges in connection with educational buildings, was credited to the Educational Building Fund and continued to accumulate until July 1861, when the Secretary of State directed that no further additions should be made by the accumulation of interest, and that, whenever the building charges fell below the interest, the balance should be applied towards defraying general educational expenditure. Sums raised by private contributions and subscriptions for the construction of school-houses were credited to this fund. All charges on account of educational buildings were met from this fund until 31st March 1884, and were divided into charge on account of original buildings and repairs to Government Colleges and schools and building grants to aided colleges and schools. The charges latterly greatly exceeded the annual receipts from interest and local contributions, and it was necessary from time to time to divert considerable sums from the capital. The erection of the Presidency College, the Senate House, and the Kumbakonam College largely contributed to the depletion of this fund, which was reduced on the 31st March 1884 to

The Educational Building Fund.

Rs. 2,718-9-1. The Fund was wound up at the close of the year, the balance having been credited to Provincial Funds, from which all building charges are since being met. From 1st April 1884 to 31st March 1892, Rs. 552,881 were spent on Government educational buildings and Rs. 251,448 as building grants. In 1892-93, Rs. 31,483 were paid as building grants.

School Fees.

During the decade ending 1880-81 every effort was made to increase the income from school fees in Government, Board and Aided Institutions. The attendance on the 31st March 1871-72 in Government institutions was 9,347 and the fee receipts amounted to Rs. 92,458; in 1880-81, the attendance rose to 11,688 and the fee receipts to Rs. 142,488. In private institutions in the same period the attendance rose from 117,778 to 276,592 and the fee receipts from Rs. 282,742 to Rs. 640,022. The percentage of fees paid by pupils to the total cost of their education in all institutions (Government and non-Government) increased from 28·9 to 34·2. The total fee receipts from all institutions, Government, Board and Private, increased from Rs. 383,022 to Rs. 823,314. It will not be without interest or value to trace briefly the manner in which the question of fees has been dealt with so as to bring about the great increase above shewn. It is stated in the Public Instruction Report for 1868-69 that: "As the desire for education has gained much strength of late years, while the fees demanded in Government Schools, though generally a good deal above those charged in private institutions intended for Natives, were decidedly low, and had remained in many cases unchanged for some time, it was deemed fitting to introduce revised and somewhat raised scales of fees from the 1st January 1869." The revised scales were accordingly introduced. The Director subsequently observed that "it did not appear the increase has had any injurious

effect" and that it "seemed only appropriate that, from time to time, the rates should be raised, so as to throw a continually increasing portion of the expenditure upon those who benefit by the schools." One noteworthy feature connected with this enhancement of fees is that it affected only Government and not aided institutions. The 1869 scale remained in force but a short time. The Government in their Order No. 38, dated 28th June 1870, observed that, "notwithstanding the increased rates, the fees charged in Government schools was still low, probably a good deal lower than was compatible with the keen and wide-spread desire for education that had sprung up of late years" and insisted on the necessity for the managers of aided institutions also raising the fees in these schools. With the view of revising the scale, a Committee, consisting of representatives of the leading educational bodies of Madras, and presided over by the Director of Public Instruction, was appointed in June 1870, and this Committee submitted their report in April 1871. The new scale of fees proposed by the Committee and approved by Government came into force on the 1st September 1871. The following extracts from the Committee's Report explain the differences in the rates of fees :—

Scale of fees introduced in 1871.

CLASSES.	GOVT. SCHOOLS.				AIDED SCHOOLS.			
	Madras.		Mofussil.		Madras.		Mofussil.	
	RS.	A.	RS.	A.	RS.	A.	RS.	A.
B. A.	5	0	4	0	3	8	2	12
F. A.	4	0	3	0	2	12	2	0
Matriculation or VI.	3	0	2	8	2	0	1	12
V and IV.	2	8	2	0	1	12	1	8
III.	1	8	1	0	1	0	0	12
II.	1	0	0	12	0	12	0	8
I.	0	8	0	8	0	8	0	6

“All schools are divided into Government and Aided, and each of these classes is divided into schools in the town of Madras and schools in the Mofussil. Owing to the large supply of instruction in the town of Madras and to other favourable circumstances attaching to the Presidency town, it appeared to us that the fees charged in Madras schools should be higher than those demanded in Mofussil institutions. Also a greater prestige belong to Government schools, while certain disadvantages are believed to affect most Aided schools; we therefore decided that the fees in the latter might with propriety be pitched somewhat below those in the former. Owing to variations as to wealth, enlightenment, and other circumstances in different parts of the Madras Presidency, it is considered that, though the scales recommended are, in our opinion, fairly suited to the generality of schools in the present state of education, there may and most probably will be instances in which they would seriously affect progress; and we are of opinion that, in peculiar cases, the Director of Public Instruction should have the power of modifying the scales of fees.”

It was further recommended by the Committee that, over and above the first month's fee, an entrance fee should be charged on the admission of a boy into a school. No entrance fee was proposed for collegiate classes, as the monthly fees for them seemed to be sufficiently heavy to render the step unadvisable in the then state of education. It was also suggested that not more than five per cent. of the whole number of pupils, exclusive of the students on endowments, should be free scholars. The Government approved of the scale and remarked that “there is much force in the arguments used by the Native Members of the Committee against making the difference between the rate charged in a Government school and in an Aided school more than twenty-five per cent.” On a reference Government decided that the scale should not be held to be binding on schools aided on the system of payment for results. In November 1875 a Committee was appointed for the purpose of taking

into consideration the question of a further increase in the rate of fees. The Committee was required to note that the Government did not intend to depart from the established proportion existing between fees in Government and in Aided schools. This Committee sent in its Report in February 1877, and orders were passed on it by Government in May following. The new rates, as per statement appended, were approved and came into force on the 1st January 1878. The Notification sanctioning this scale provided—

“That in addition to the ordinary first month’s fee, an entrance fee, according to the following scale, should be charged when a pupil joins a school; and should a student quit a school and subsequently rejoin it, a fresh entrance fee is to be demanded.

	RS.
Sixth or Matriculation class	3
Fifth, Upper Fourth, Lower Fourth	2
Other classes	1

The Muhammadan and Ooriya students are to pay half the ordinary rates.

That the rules do not apply to—

- (a) The practising departments of Normal Schools.
- (b) Municipal Schools.
- (c) Local Fund Schools.
- (d) Schools on the Results system.
- (e) Schools on the Combined system.”

In 1879 the rate of fees in the College department at the Kumbakonum Provincial College was raised from Rs. 4 to Rs. 4-8-0. No rates of fees were prescribed for practising schools or for Girls’ schools, Government or Aided. In Government practising schools the fee rates varied from 6 pies to Rs. 1¼, and in Aided schools of this description from 1 anna to Rs. 1½. In the practising department of the Government Female Normal School the fees payable by Europeans and East Indians varied from 8 annas to Rs. 3, and those payable by natives from 6 pies to 6 annas.

SCALE OF FEES APPROVED IN 1878.

NOMENCLATURE OF CLASSES.	MADRAS.		A. MOFFUSIL TOWNS OF THE 1ST GRADE.			B. MOFFUSIL TOWNS OF THE 2ND GRADE.			C. MOFFUSIL TOWNS OF THE 3RD GRADE.			REMARKS.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																								
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Sixth (Metric)	3	8	0	2	8	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	8	0	1	12	0																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																
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Some of the Government Girls' Schools were free, and some charged nominal fees. In some of these schools, as well as in schools aided on the results or on the combined system, the masters appropriated the fees. They were also paid sometimes in kind. It is worthy of note that some aided institutions charged fees in excess of the minimum rates prescribed.

Col. Macdonald reported as follows in 1876 on the different kinds of Scholarships then in existence :—
 “There are at present four kinds of Government Stipendiary Scholarships.
 Stipendiary Scholarships, *viz.*, (1) Scholarships awarded on the results of the University Examinations, (2) Scholarships given to Ooriya pupils in the Taluq schools of the Ganjam District, (3) Scholarships held by Normal students, and (4) Scholarships tenable in the Medical College, the Civil Engineering College, and the School of Arts. The University Scholarships were instituted in 1861. Originally ten Scholarships of Rs. 10 each were awarded by the Director of Public Instruction on the results of the Matriculation Examination, the Scholarship being tenable for three years in any institution which educated its pupils up to the standard of the B. A. Examination. Slight changes were made in the scheme from time to time. The number of Scholarships was increased to fifteen ; the candidates were required to be placed in the first class of the Matriculation Examination, to secure one-third of the marks assigned to the English language, and to pass the First Examination in Arts which did not exist when the Scholarships were first instituted. In the event of their obtaining a place in the first class at the First Arts Examination, their Scholarships were raised from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15, and when the course for a degree was extended from three to four years a corresponding increase was made in the duration of the Scholarships. These regulations were suitable when

they were first framed, but the ultimate effect of the rules was that nearly all the Scholarships came to be monopolized by certain favoured districts, while those portions of the Presidency which stood most in need of encouragement derived little or no benefit from the scheme. A revised scheme, which was sanctioned in Government Order, No. 40, of the 8th February 1876, is now in operation. No Stipendiary Scholarships are

Godavery.
Kistna.
Bellary.
Trichinopoly.
Malabar.
South Canara.

given now in the Madras and Tanjore Districts, in which education of a high order is brought almost to the doors of the students. In the six districts noted

in the margin there are Provin-

cial Schools or Aided Institutions, educating up to the F. A. Standard. One Scholarship of Rs. 15, tenable for two years, is attached to each of these districts, and awarded to the pupil who stands first in the F. A. Examination. In the remaining eleven districts a boy cannot carry his education beyond the Matriculation Standard. A Scholarship of Rs. 10, tenable for two years, is attached to each of these districts and given to the pupil who stands highest in the Matriculation Examination. If the Scholarship holder takes a second class in the F. A. Examination, the Scholarship is renewed for a further period of two years; if he takes a first class, it is increased to Rs. 15. A limit of age which was introduced some years ago has been continued. To obtain a Scholarship a candidate must Matriculate before his age exceeds eighteen, and must pass the First Examination in Arts before his age exceeds twenty. The Scholarships are tenable only in institutions which educate up to the B. A. and F. A. Standards. As Mahomedans need special encouragement, one F. A. Scholarship of Rs. 15 and two Matriculation Scholarships of Rs. 10 have been provided for them without any limitation with regard

to districts. A Matriculation Scholarship of Rs. 10 has been provided on similar ground for Ooriyas. Under Government Order, No. 201, of the 3rd June 1874, two Scholarships of Rs. 6 each, tenable for four years, are awarded by the Inspector of the First Division to the best Oriya pupils of the Taluq schools of Russelcondah, Purushotmapore, Itchapore, and Teckaly, Rughoonauthpoor. The Scholarship holders are required to enter the fourth class of the Zillah school of Berhampore and to prosecute their studies up to the Matriculation Standard." During 1880-81 Rs. 9,560 were expended upon Scholarships in Arts and Secondary schools, Rs. 4,402 in special Colleges and schools, and Rs. 25,650 in Normal schools. No Scholarships of any kind were given in Primary schools for boys or girls.

During the ten years under review Government Finance of expenditure on University education in its own institutions rose from Rs. 64,000 to Rs. 122,000, and in aided Colleges from Rs. 8,700 to Rs. 23,500. On Secondary education in Government schools the outlay rose from ninety-thousand to a lakh and ninety-thousand, while in aided schools Government expenditure fell from a lakh and ninety-thousand to ninety-thousand. Government Primary schools cost Rs. 75,925 in 1880-81 against Rs. 35,690 in 1870-71, while the Government expenditure on aided Primary schools rose from a lakh to a lakh and seven thousand. In the same ten years, the expenditure on aided Primary education from Local and Municipal Funds increased from Rs. 87,619 to Rs. 212,576; so that the aid to Primary education from 'public' funds amounted to Rs. 320,010 in the year 1880-81. The reduction of grant to Secondary education was not so great as indicated in the figures quoted above for the following reasons: (1) Up to 1874-75 the grants

debited to Secondary education were partly for Primary, as the classification was not exact ; (2) The old rate schools which were drawing grants from Provincial funds were treated as private schools during the early years ; (3) Many schools formerly improperly classed as " Middle " schools were reduced to the lower class. In the following table is shewn the net expenditure from Provincial Funds, *i. e.*, the whole amount of money expended by the Department *minus* the receipts from fees, from endowments, from the Educational Building Fund and from other sources :—

—	1870-71.	1875-76.	1880-81.
	RS.	RS.	RS.
Direction	37,185	40,423	40,598
Inspection	134,742	168,196	190,289
Government institutions for general education ...	203,181	190,063	245,841
Government institutions for special education ...	178,362	145,801	171,569
Scholarships... ..	7,950	4,790	5,458
Grants-in-Aid	337,395	266,817	241,466
University	11,428	29,000	...
Book Depôt, &c.	22,787	7,788	— 469
Miscellaneous	4,474
Total ...	933,030	852,878	899,226

The gross expenditure on education at the three periods is summarised below :—

—	1870-7 .	1875-76.	1880-81.
	RS.	RS.	RS.
Government Institutions...	4,49,936	766,582	940,768
Private Institutions ...	1,072,835	15,39,258	1,694,569
Direction, Inspection, &c. ...	382,891	436,409	472,375
Total ...	1,905,662	2,742,249	3,107,712

The extension of operation was thus much greater between 1871 and 1876 than between 1876 and 1881, the expenditure in the former five years having risen by more than 40 per cent., while the expenditure in 1880-81 was only a trifle more than 13 per cent. in excess of that in 1875-76. The gross expenditure of Rs. 31,07,712 was made up of the following sources : From Provincial Funds, Rs. 945,176 ; Local Funds, Rs. 4,44,847 ; Municipal Funds, Rs. 75,020 ; Fees in Government institutions, Rs. 241,899 ; Fees in Aided institutions, Rs. 465,509 ; Fees in Unaided institutions, Rs. 175,513 ; Endowments, Rs. 136,065 ; Other sources, Rs. 624,683.

Col. Macdonald, who was at the head of the Department from the 24th March 1875, retired from the service on 1st July 1880. The most important measures which marked Col. Macdonald's administration of the Department were the raising of the Provincial School at Rajahmundry to the status of a First-grade College ; the constitution of the Berhampore, Cuddalore, Salem, and Madura High schools Second-grade Colleges teaching up to the F. A. Examination ; the remodelling of the Government High and Middle schools with a view to secure for them a uniform scale of establishment with graduated salaries ; the reduction of the Mofussil Normal schools to Elementary Normal schools adapted to the training of teachers for Primary schools ; and the inauguration of the policy of encouraging Local Fund Boards to establish similar Normal schools, more especially in districts where Government schools did not exist ; the revision of the curricula prescribed for Government schools ; the bringing out of a volume of Standing Orders for Government schools and District Book Depôts ; the revision of the rates of fees in Government and Aided schools ; the appointment of an In-

Col. Macdonald's Administration.

spectress of Girls' school for the development of female education; and lastly, the revision of the Grant-in-Aid Code. With regard to the increase of local Colleges during Col. Macdonald's administration, Mr. H. B. Grigg, his successor, commented as follows:— "The policy of the late Director in developing the Provincial High Schools into Colleges has been much debated, and some of the objections urged are no doubt forcible, particularly those connected with the financial aspect of the measure, and with the expediency of encouraging Matriculates to stay in the Provinces and pursue their studies towards the Arts Degree Examinations in local institutions instead of resorting to the leading Colleges of the Presidency, more especially those in Madras, where they would have the benefit of receiving instruction in the higher branches of knowledge from Professors of culture and ability, mostly European. But quite apart from the evils resulting from residence in a large city far removed from the watchful care and control of parents and guardians, it is an undoubted fact that comparatively few of those who pass the Matriculation Examination from the Provinces proceed to the centres of educational activity to complete their studies, whilst a considerable proportion of those that matriculate would unquestionably do so if facilities for pursuing their studies existed in their own district. I have already drawn attention to the position of the Kumbakonum and Rajahmundry Colleges in regard to the neighbouring districts, also to the number of mofussil students in the two great Colleges at Madras. It is true that most of these small Colleges have not as yet been provided with men of mental and educational calibre adequate for the task entrusted to them, but I see no reason why men should not gradually be provided, as in the case of the Kumbakonum and Rajahmundry Colleges,

quite capable, at least, of carrying students through the first half of their University course. Remembering the strong passion for home which is innate with most Hindus, one cannot resist the conviction that the gradual acceptance of Western ideas will be much more rapidly and more safely brought about by means of superior educational institutions in the proximity of the homes of the people than by inducing them to go far from home in search of higher instruction and culture. I do not by these remarks desire to underrate the vast and incalculable importance of encouraging the youth of the country to proceed to the great centres of educational effort and of intellectual and industrial life, but I am disposed to think that, with the bulk of the students, it is better to defer this course until the second portion of their University course, when they have attained an age which renders them more secure against the temptations incident to a residence in a great city, and also an educational status which will enable them to derive greater benefit from superior professional teaching than if their migration followed immediately on their entering the University. The gradual increase of local Colleges will probably so vastly increase the number of students seeking to pass the final Degree Examination that in the course of a few years the great institutions of the Presidency town will have ample scope for their energies in passing students from the Provinces through the latter portion of their University career."

Section IV.—The Education Commission.

Appointment
of the Educa-
tion Commis-
sion.

On the 3rd February 1882, the Government of India appointed an Education Commission, with a view to enquiring into the working of the existing system of Public Instruction, and to the further extension of that system on a popular basis. The Commission consisted of the twenty-one Members noted below* and a Secretary. The Members selected not only represented official, native and missionary views, but also the various races and classes interested in Indian education. The reasons for the enquiry were various. In the first place it was thought that as a full quarter of a century had elapsed since the measures set forth in the Despatch of 1854 had come into active operation, the time had come for instituting a more careful examination into the results attained, and into the working of the existing arrange-

* PRESIDENT.

The Honourable W. W. Hunter, B. A., LL.D., C. I. E., Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council.

MEMBERS.

The Honourable Sayyid Ahmed Khan Bahadur, C. S. I., (who afterwards withdrew and was succeeded by his son, Mr. Sayyid Mahmud).

The Honourable D. M. Barbour, C. S., Secretary to the Government of India in the Financial Department.

The Rev. W. R. Blackett, M. A., Principal of the Church Mission Divinity College, Calcutta.

Mr. Ananda Mohan Bose, B. A., Barrister-at-Law.

Mr. A. W. Croft, M. A., Director of Public Instruction, Bengal.

Mr. K. Deighton, B. A., Principal of the Agra College, N.-W. Provinces

Mr. J. T. Fowler, Inspector of Schools, Madras.

Mr. A. P. Howell, M. A., C. S., Commissioner of Berar.

Mr. H. P. Jacob, Educational Inspector, Bombay.

ments for carrying on of education. In some quarters there was also discontent that the principles of the Despatch of 1854 had not been fully carried out. It was thought that too great a sum had been devoted to Higher Education through the medium of State schools and colleges, that sufficient encouragement had not been given to elementary education, and that the Grant-in-aid system had not been satisfactorily developed so as to allow of the free expansion of aided education. The Missionary educationists were the first to complain. In 1878 was formed, chiefly through the exertions of the Rev. James Johnstone, the General Council on Education in India. Mr. Johnstone, who was the Secretary of the Council, by speaking, by writing pamphlets, and by organizing deputations to influential statesmen, brought the movement into notice. The Council contained, among others, the Earl of Shaftesbury, Lord Lawrence, and Lord Halifax, the author

Mr. W. Lee-Warner, M. A., C. S., First Assistant Collector, Satara, Bombay.

The Rev. W. Miller, M. A., Principal of the Madras Christian College.

Mr. P. Ranganada Mudaliar, M. A., Professor of Mathematics, Presidency College, Madras.

The Honourable Babu Bhudeb Mookerjee, C. I. E., Inspector of Schools, Bengal.

Mr. C. Pearson, Inspector of Schools, Bengal.

The Honourable Maharaj Sir Jotendro Mohan Tagore, K. C. S. I., Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council.

Mr. Kashinath Trimbak Telang, M. A., LL. B., Bombay.

Mr. G. E. Ward, C. S., Collector of Jaunpur, N.-W. Provinces.

The Rev. H. Jean, D. D., (S. J.), Rector of St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly.

Mr. C. A. R. Browning, M. A., Inspector-General of Education, Central Provinces.

Mr. Haji Ghulam Hasan, Punjab.

SECRETARY.

Mr. R. L. Rice, Director of Public Instruction, Mysore and Coorg.

of the great Despatch of 1854. The Education Commission was partly due to the agitation of this Council; for the Marquis of Ripon, when he went out to India, in 1880, gave pledges to a deputation of the Council, which had waited upon him, that he would make a thorough and searching inquiry as to how far the principles of the Despatch of 1854 had been carried out.

Instructions
to the Com-
mission.

The Government of India desired that the Commission, in enquiring how far the principles of Despatch of 1854 had been acted on, "should specially bear in mind the great importance which the Government attaches to the subject of Primary Education. The development of elementary education was one of the main objects contemplated by the Despatch of 1854. Attention was specially directed in that Despatch to the question how useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life, might be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts; and it was desired that the active measures of Government should be more especially directed for the future to this object." "Although the matter was thus prominently and at the outset pressed upon the attention of the Indian administrations there can, His Excellency in Council believed, be very little doubt that, owing to a variety of circumstances, more progress has up to the present time been made in high and middle than in primary education. The Government of India is not disposed in any way to regret this advance. It would be altogether contrary to its policy to check or hinder in any degree the further progress of high or middle education. But the Government holds that the different branches of Public Instruction should, if possible, move forward together, and with more equal step

than hitherto, and the principal object, therefore, of the enquiry of the Commission should be 'the present state of elementary education throughout the empire, and the means by which this can everywhere be extended and improved.' " The Commission, at the same time, was required to consider the wider extension of the Grant-in-aid system in connection with high and middle education and the steps necessary to encourage native gentlemen to come forward and aid, even more extensively than hitherto, in the establishment of schools upon the Grant-in-aid system. The best way of securing the aid of municipal bodies in the management of the public schools, was also required to be considered. The Government of India also called the attention of the Commission to the statement, not unfrequently made, that the wealthier classes in India did not pay enough for the education of their children and suggested that the funds available for Scholarships should be so distributed as to afford ample facilities for obtaining a good secondary education to a large number of youths in the Secondary schools. The Commission was directed to "particularly enquire as to the extent to which indigenous schools exist in different parts of the country, and are, or can be, utilised as a part of the educational system." With regard to secondary education, the Commission was directed to enquire "into the quality and character of the instruction imparted in schools of this class" and emphasized the importance of this education being as thorough and as sound as possible. The Commission was also to enquire into the system of educational inspection, with a view to removing defects, introducing improvements, and securing the aid of a large amount of voluntary agency in the work of inspecting and examining the schools. The important and difficult subject of female education was to receive special consideration, together with the best means of encour-

aging and extending it so far as the circumstances of the country permitted. Whilst thus assigning a large area of enquiry to the Commission, the Governor-General in Council exempted certain special branches of educational work from its investigations. These branches included the general working of the Indian Universities; technical instruction, whether medical, legal or engineering; the education of Europeans and Eurasians. The Government of India also warned the Commission that in providing for the extension of primary schools, "the limitation imposed upon the action of Government by financial considerations must always be borne in mind."

Method adopted by the Commission in conducting the enquiry.

The Commission assembled in Calcutta on the 10th of February 1882, and sat regularly until the 31st of March. Its deliberations during this short session were chiefly directed to preparing a scheme, with a view to clearly ascertaining the state of education in each of the provinces of India. For this purpose, the representative members for each part of India were constituted a Provincial Committee. During the next eight months the President visited the different Provinces, collecting materials, receiving petitions, and examining witnesses. A great enthusiasm was excited in the subject of education throughout the length and breadth of the country. At every place that was visited large meetings were held to welcome the Commission. Nearly two hundred witnesses were examined, and over three hundred memorials were presented, one hundred and forty of them coming from educational Societies, and Municipal and other public bodies. The Commission re-assembled in Calcutta on the 5th of December 1882. Having fully deliberated on the material interest, and agreed upon its recommendations, the Commission concluded its collective labours on the 16th of March 1883.

The Report, which is a folio volume of over 600 pages, was drawn up by the President of the Commission, and a representative Committee of five members—namely, Mr. Croft (Bengal), Rev. W. Miller (Madras), Mr. Howell (Central Provinces), Mr. Lee-Warner (Bombay), and Mr. Deighton (N. W. Provinces). Mr. Jacob was entrusted with the preparation of the Statistical Tables contained in the report. The Commission arrived at no less than two hundred and twenty-two resolutions, of which one hundred and eighty were carried unanimously, while the remaining 42 were carried by a majority. The recommendations are to be accepted as the deliberate decisions of the Commission and they form the basis of the Report.*

In the chapter on Indigenous schools, after a brief survey of indigenous education in India, the distinctive feature of the different indigenous systems, the religious character of the high class and elementary indigenous schools, the status of indigenous schoolmasters and other subjects are interestingly, though not exhaustively, dealt with. With reference to the attitude of the department towards such schools it was recommended “that the best practical method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, which desire recognition, be ascertained by the local educational department in communication with the Moulvies and Pandits and others interested in the subject.” The following were some of the recommendations relating to the schools to be assisted, the character, and conditions of assistance, and the channel of distributing aid:—

“That all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognized and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education.”

* *Vide* Appendix G.

“That the system of aid adopted be that which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of the examination.”

“That special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training.”

“That a steady and gradual improvement be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with the personnel and curriculum of indigenous schools as possible.”

“That aided indigenous schools, not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community; special aid being, if necessary, assignable on account of low-caste pupils.”

“That, where municipal and local boards exist, the registration, supervision and encouragement of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to them, provided that such boards shall not interfere in any way with any schools which do not desire to receive aid or to be subject to the supervision of the boards.”

Primary Education.

The chapter on Primary education opens with a definition of “Public Primary Schools.” The Report says:—“By the word “Public” we do not mean merely Government schools which are wholly supported at the expense of public funds, whether those funds be provincial, local or Municipal, but any schools which receive aid in any form from the State, even when that aid is confined to the benefits of inspection and supervision, as well as those which regularly send their pupils to the examinations held by the Department.” The Commission also recommended “that Primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through

the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the University." Reference is made in it to the two theories regarding the extension of Primary education. The one is that Departmental schools should be opened in every large village of the country and so organized as to afford a thorough education under the direction of departmental inspectors and through the agency of good teachers. The other is the system of incorporating the indigenous schools of the country instead of superseding them entirely by departmental schools. The Commission pointed out that both systems could claim the sanction of the higher authority. The Despatches of 1854 and 1859 confirmed the principle of incorporating and improving the existing indigenous schools, rather than of inducing the people to set up new schools under the Grant-in-aid systems then in force; but they also sanctioned the establishment of new schools by direct departmental agency. Accordingly, the Local Governments considered themselves free to adopt whichever system seemed to be more suited to local circumstances. Speaking of the Primary system in Madras, the Report says :—

“ The early history of Primary education in Madras offers a marked contrast to its later development. The present system, which rests mainly on private enterprise, without altogether neglecting the direct instrumentality of the department, was founded in 1868, consolidated in 1871, and has been systematically persevered in and improved from that date up till now. It differs from that of Bombay in the large support which it gains from private enterprise and in its liberal patronage of indigenous schools; again, it differs from that of Bengal in its more practical and

successful insistence upon improvement and upon raising aided schools out of their traditional indifference to a level with the progressive wants of society. The policy laid down from the first has been steadily adhered to without interruption. Prior to the year 1868 Madras could not boast that success had attended its early efforts. Nearly fifty years before that date, Sir Thomas Munro had devised a scheme of establishing district and taluka schools based upon the indigenous schools of the country, but his plan was abandoned in 1836. Apart from the check which this abandonment involved, other influences were at work to retard the progress of Primary education. From Bengal by its example, and from England by direct instructions, pressure was brought to bear on Madras in favour of extending higher education. The theory of "downward filtration" obtained complete ascendancy, and even in 1841 the President of the University Board, in an address to Lord Elphinstone, gave expression to the popular view where he remarked that "the light must touch the mountain tops before it could pierce to the levels and depth." Mr. Thomas, who was a few years later Chief Secretary and Member of the Council of Education, entirely disapproved of these sentiments and argued in favour of the broader basis of solid education through the native languages. No action was, however, taken to carry out these views, and when the Despatch of 1854 reached Madras, a few elementary schools in the Hill tracts of Ganjam and in Rajahmundry, and a paltry expenditure in Chingleput, Nellore and Tanjore, represented the attention which the State had paid to the instruction of the masses. Ten years later, when Mr. Monteath's note of 1865-66 was written, primary State education still lagged behind. But about this period the Grant-in-aid rules were under revision, and a new scheme

for results grants sanctioned in the following year came into force on 1st January 1868. From this date Primary education made rapid and continuous progress. In the first year 494 schools were aided on the system of payment of results, in the next 1,065, and in the third 1,606. In 1871 there were only 17 Government Primary schools chiefly in the Hill tracts of Ganjam, attended by 741 pupils, the aided and inspected schools were 2,783 with 67,496 pupils, while the High and Middle schools, had 21,465 pupils in the Primary classes. Thus there were 89,702 children under primary instruction in Madras."

In the following recommendation the Commission state their conviction of the great importance of Primary education :—

"That while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed on a still larger measure than hitherto."

Subjects such as methods of registration of attendance, school accommodation, training of teachers, fees, scholarships, &c., were also dealt with fully. A uniform standard of examination for Primary schools was laid down, the standards being revised with a view to the introduction of practical subjects such as native arithmetic, mensuration and elementary physics. The following are a few of the important recommendations on Primary education :—

"That an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each province."

“As a general rule, aid to Primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examinations, but an exception may be made in the case of schools established in backward districts or under peculiar circumstances which may be aided under special rules.”

“Primary education be extended in backward districts, especially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the department pending the creation of school boards, or by specially liberal Grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools.”

“All Primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school boards, and all Primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community.”

“Primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues.”

Secondary Education.

The following is the definition given of Secondary education at the commencement of Chapter V. of the Report:—“Secondary education, as the term is understood in India, may be generally (though not in all cases accurately) described as that which leads up from the primary to the collegiate course.” It was however pointed out that though the higher limit of Secondary education was precisely defined by the Matriculation standard of the Universities, since that standard has been regarded not only as the introduction to a course of collegiate study, but also as the final standard of Secondary schools, the starting point of Secondary education necessarily varied with the varying limits of primary instruction, as that was understood in different Provinces. Several ques-

tions of importance are discussed in this chapter, *e. g.*, the place of English and Vernacular in Secondary schools, Middle schools and their different aims, Text-books in Secondary schools, Training of Teachers, &c. The Commission indicate a distinction in the claims which Primary and Secondary education respectively have upon the support of the State, in the recommendation which runs as follows :—“ That it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming ; and that, therefore, in all ordinary cases, Secondary schools for instruction in English should hereafter be established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of Grants-in-aid.” Other recommendations of importance related to the bifurcation system :—

“ That in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions, one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for Commercial or other non-literary pursuits.”

“ That when the proposed bifurcation in Secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or if necessary by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service.”

The chapter on Collegiate education begins with a review of the growth of this branch of education in the various Provinces. The following is the para. regarding Collegiate education in the Madras Presidency :—

“ Collegiate education in the Madras Presidency needs but a comparatively brief account ; for while

Collegiate
Education.

Bengal and Bombay started with the attempt to cultivate the classical language of the East, and to educate their students in the theological and legal lore of the faith to which they belonged, in Madras it was recognized from the first that the only sound basis for the higher education lay in attaining knowledge according to European method. One reason of this difference is to be found in the date at which that higher education was set on foot. Of the institutions in Madras, which previous to 1857, had a claim to be called colleges, none date further back than 1837; none, that is, came into existence till the controversy between the Anglicists and Orientalists had been finally decided. Another reason was that the old religious literature had less hold on the affections of the people, and that the importance of conciliating religious feeling had not impressed itself so strongly upon Government. The colleges, therefore, from their first beginning were in character much what they now are, though in efficiency and completeness great strides have since been made. To a Missionary body belongs the honour of having founded the first institution of the kind, the General Assembly's Institution, as its earlier title was, the Madras Christian College, as it is now called. Here alone, for several years, could a native of Southern India obtain a liberal education. The Presidency College which came into existence as a High School in 1841, and in a few years was practically a college, did not receive the higher title till 1855, while St. Joseph's College, which was founded at Negapatam in 1846 by the Jesuits, in charge of the Madura Mission, only entered upon its enlarged field of operations some years after the establishment of the Madras University."

Some of the important subjects dealt with in this chapter are the scope and character of collegiate

Instruction; duration of college courses, salaries of Professors and their status, Grants-in-aid, &c. The question of the Government connection with the colleges was settled by dividing them into three classes ; (1) those from which it would be premature to withdraw, as being, and likely for sometime to continue to be, the institutions on which higher education would mainly depend, (2) those which might be with advantage transferred to local bodies of natives on stringent conditions of permanent maintenance in full efficiency, (3) those which, having been only partly successful, it was advisable to transfer without such stringent guarantees or to close permanently, in case, after due notice, no local body cared to carry them on. The following are some of the important recommendations of the Commission bearing on Collegiate education :—

“ That the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality.”

“ That Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.”

“ That in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable, in all the larger colleges, Government and Aided, to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.”

“ That an attempt be made to prepare a moral textbook, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.”

“ That the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and Aided college deliver to each of

the college classes in every Session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen."

Boarding
Houses.

The Commission, though it did not pass a definite resolution recommending Boarding Houses or Students' Hostels in connection with colleges, still indicated the desirability of these institutions. The Report says:—"In their scheme of discipline, and in the academic life of their students, Indian colleges have but little analogy with those of the older English Universities, their resemblances being close to those of Scotland and Germany. Residence in college buildings is not only not generally compulsory, but the colleges are few in which any systematic provision is made for control over the students' pursuits out of college houses. Boarding houses are, indeed, attached to certain institutions, and their number increases year by year. But, unless the students' home be at a distance from the collegiate city and he have no relatives to receive him, it is seldom that he will incur the expense which residence involves. Two principal reasons account for this feature in our system. First, the initial outlay upon buildings is one from which Government and independent bodies alike shrink. For so poor is the Indian student that it would be impossible to demand of him any but the most moderate rent—a rent perhaps barely sufficient to cover the cost of the annual repairs. The second objection lies in the religious and social prejudices which fixes class from class. Not only does the Hindu refuse to eat with the Mussalman, but from close contact with whose sections of his own co-religionists he is shut off by the imperious ordinances of caste. Experience, however, has already proved that the barriers of custom are giving way. In the North-West Provinces and the Punjab, where the residential system has been widely tried, the success has been considerable, and nothing

but want of funds stand in the way of a fuller development. In the more important colleges, also, a considerable number of the students are in residence ; in Bengal and Madras the system has been less fully recognised. Yet it is the only thing which will give the Departmental Officer a hold upon the lives of those whose intellects he trains with such sedulous elaboration. From any attempt to touch the religious side of the students' character, the Government Educational Officer is debarred by the principle of religious neutrality. All the more important therefore it is that he should be able to exercise the moral influence of a wise and watchful discipline."

The remarks of the Commission on the subject of moral training—a subject to which considerable attention has of late been given by the Government of India and the local Governments are of special interest and value. The Report says :—"The subject of moral training in colleges is replete with difficulties—difficulties, however, that are mainly practical. For there is no difference of opinion as to moral training being as necessary as intellectual or physical training, and no dissent from the principle that a system in which moral training was wholly neglected would be unworthy of the name of education. Nor, again, is there any difference of opinion as to the moral value of the love of law and order, of the respect for superiors, of the obedience, regularity and attendance to duty which every well-conducted college is calculated to promote. All these have, by the nearly universal consent of the witnesses, done a great deal to elevate the moral tone and improve the daily practice of the great bulk of those who have been trained in the colleges of India. The degree in which different colleges have exerted a moral influence of this kind is probably as various as the degree

Moral Training in Colleges.

of success that has attended the intellectual training given in them and has doubtless been different in all colleges at different times, depending as it does so largely on the character and personal influence of the Principal and Professors who may form the staff at any given period. So far all the witnesses, and probably all intelligent men, are substantially agreed. Difficulties begin when the question is raised whether good can be done by distinct moral teaching, over and above the moral supervision which all admit to be good and useful, and which all desire to see made more thorough than it is at present. In colleges supported by Missionary Societies, in the Anglo-Muhamadan College, Aligarh, and in at least one other college under native management, the attempt has been made to give such moral teaching on the basis of religion. In Government colleges there has been no attempt at direct moral teaching. In them, entire reliance has, as a rule, been placed on such moral supervision as can be exerted during college hours, and on such opportunities for indirect moral lessons as are afforded by the study of the ordinary text-books and by the occurrences of ordinary academic life. Religious education, and the possibility of connecting it with Government colleges, we shall consider separately. The present point is the possibility or wisdom of introducing distinct moral teaching in places where there is no religious instruction. The question that was put to bring out the views of our witnesses on the point stood thus :—"Does definite instruction in duty and the principles of moral conduct occupy any place in the course of Government colleges and schools? Have you any suggestions to make on this subject?" None of the witnesses raised any objection in principle to such instruction being given. A considerable number held that there is no need for such instruction, and two of these, the Principals of Government

colleges in Bombay and Madras, held that no good result can flow from devoting a distinct portion of time to the teaching of duty and the principles of moral conduct. Some also held that the practical difficulties in the way of introducing moral instruction into Government colleges are so great that it is expedient to leave matters as they are. The great majority, however, of the witnesses that dealt with the question at all, expressed a strong desire that definite moral instruction should form part of the college course.....A review of the evidence seems to show that moral instruction may be introduced into the course of Government colleges without objection anywhere, and in some Provinces with strong moral approval. Those who wish definite moral instruction to be introduced generally advocate the teaching of some moral text-book. No one, however, has pointed to any text-book that he is prepared to recommend for immediate introduction.....In all colleges, and under all courses of instruction, the most effective moral training consists in inculcating habits of order, diligence, truthfulness, and due self-respect combined with submission to authority, all of which lessons a good teacher finds useful opportunities of imparting. The formation of such habits is promoted by the study of the lives and actions of great men, such as the student finds in the course of his English reading; and, it may also be hoped, by the silent influence upon his character of constant intercourse with teachers, whom he is able to regard with respect and affection. Nor, again, is there reason to believe that collegiate education of the present type has any injurious effect upon the life and character of the students. On the contrary, the nearly unanimous testimony of those who have had the best opportunities of observing goes to shew that in integrity, in self-respect, in stability of purpose, and

generally in those solid qualities which constitute an honourable and useful character, the University graduate is generally superior to those who have not employed the advantages which college training confers."

Religious
teaching in
Colleges.

On the subject of religious teaching the following remarks are found in the Report :—"Government having deliberately adopted the policy of religious neutrality, there is no religious teaching in the colleges managed by the Department of Education. The Grant-in-Aid system is based upon the same policy, and it might therefore seem that the subject of religious teaching in Aided colleges has no place in the Report of the Commission. Nor would it if the question be not equally consistent with the religious neutrality of Government colleges, the policy, namely, not of excluding all religions, but of giving equal facility for instruction in them all. This has been advocated by several native witnesses, especially in the Punjab. The argument adduced in favour of such a policy seems generally to be that the minds of students are so filled with their secular studies that religion drops out of view and ceases to influence them and that home influence has been found in practice too weak to counteract the anti-religious, or rather non-religious, influence which exclusive attention to the subjects studied at college is exerting. This is expressed as follows by one who pleads strongly for a change in this respect : "Children are sent to school as soon as they are able to talk and move about freely, and they spend a number of years in school, until in fact they are passed out as full blown B. A.'s or some such thing..... Their whole time and attention being devoted to school-books, they fall very little under what is called the home influence..... The unfavourable impressions which the children receive in the school for a series of years at

the early part of their age sit deep in their hearts and exert a very demoralizing influence upon them in after-life, to the prejudice of themselves and of those who come in their ways.....Will Government tolerate such a state of things? Will it still persist in a policy which excludes religion from the State education, but encourages something which is anti-religious, though in the most indirect manner.' The remedy proposed is that Government should employ teachers of all prevalent forms of religion to give instruction in its colleges, or should at least give such teachers admission to its colleges if their services are provided by outside bodies. We are unable to recommend any plan of this kind. However praiseworthy the feelings that underlie such a proposal, we are satisfied that no such scheme can be reduced to practice in the present state of Indian Society. The system of grants-in-aid was in part designed to meet the difficulty complained of, and those who regret the absence of religious teaching from Government Colleges are at liberty to set up colleges giving full recognition to the religious principles they prefer. In doing this they should be most liberally helped, and it may be worth while to point out that the successful establishment of a college in which any form of religion is inculcated would not lose its effect even though the Government College in which religion is not taught should continue to be maintained beside it. Students cannot be kept apart, and cannot but affect one another. Any influence, whether good or bad, that is felt among the students in one college spreads rapidly to those of another that is near it. Thus, those who regard any particular form of religious teaching as a good thing may be sure that by establishing a college in which such teaching is imparted, they are influencing not only the students their own college may attract, but the students in Government Colleges as well."

General ef-
fects of High-
er Education.

On the subject of the general effects of Collegiate Education, the Commission expressed itself in no uncertain manner. The remarks of the Commission are of special importance as critics have often taken too pessimistic a view of the effects of this branch of education. The Report says :—"An estimate of the effect which collegiate instruction has had upon the general education and enlightenment of the people must in fairness be accompanied by a reference to the objects which it sets before itself. The reformers of 1835, to whom the system is due, claimed that only by an education in English, and after European methods, could we hope to raise the moral and intellectual tone of Indian society and supply the Administration with a competent body of public servants. To what degree, then, have these objects been attained? Our answer is in the testimony of witnesses before this Commission, in the thoughtful opinions delivered from time to time by men whose position has given them ample opportunities of judging, and the facts obvious to all eyes throughout the country. And that answer is conclusive; if not that collegiate education has fulfilled all the expectations entertained of it, at least that it has not disappointed the hopes of a sober judgment. Many mistakes in the methods employed have been pointed out and corrected by maturer experience. Much done has to be undone. Not a little yet remains for gradual reconsideration. So, too, of the recipients of our college education, it is by no means pretended that they are the very crown and flower of Indian humanity. Many unlively defects of character still give occasion of scorn to those who are nothing if not critical. Of superficial learning, and of pretentious self-assertion, manifested in a variety of ways, there has no doubt been plenty. It would be strange if it were otherwise. For in no country under any circumstances has there been equal

or similar encouragement to the development of such and other faults. The surroundings of an Indian student are not always favourable for the development of a high type of character. Neither in the labour nor in the recreations of those about him does he find much that sort with his intellectual pursuits. Living in an atmosphere of ignorance, his sense of superiority is in danger of becoming conceit. Reverence for the current forms of the religion of his country seems difficult to him when face to face with dogmas which science has exploded, and a disposition to scoff does not beautify his nature. Nor is it possible, at least in Government Colleges, to appeal in a large and systematic manner to that religious teaching which has been found to be the most universal basis of morality. Again, his intercourse with the ruling race is not wholly without its drawbacks. Unwise enthusiasts flatter him with hopes and prophecies. The advantages he enjoys give him a distorted idea of claims to be urged upon a Government that has done so much for him. His self-reliance weakens with encouragement, or he is irritated and rebuked by the chilly courtesies of English reserve. The narrow circle of his life; the absence of facilities for travel, whereby his sympathies and experience might be enlarged; the strong temptation to lay aside his studies so soon as employment supplies his moderate necessities; the scanty inducement to fit himself for higher duties,—all help to dwarf the moral and intellectual growth, and to foster those faults against which satirists, good-humoured or bitter, have directed so many shafts. All the greater, therefore, is the credit given to him when he rises above the influences by which he is surrounded; and, whatever his weaknesses, it may be safely said that they who best know the educated native have the most to urge in his favour. It may

also be safely said that many of the faults charged against the earlier generation of college students are disappearing, as an English education is less regarded in the light of a rare distinction. Some of those faults were born of the time and circumstances; some had root in a system of instruction now everywhere becoming more thorough and more scientific."

Professions
which the Ma-
jority of edu-
cated Natives
adopt.

Considerable light is thrown in the Report on the subject of the Professional occupations of educated Natives:—"Of the professions to which a student takes on leaving college, the most favourite are Government Service and the Law. In the latter will generally be found those whose talents are brightest, and in whom self-reliance is most strong; in the former, those who, from narrowness of circumstances or from a doubt of their own powers, have been glad to accept employment, sometimes of a very humble kind. As a Government servant, the ex-student is found everywhere and in all branches of the Administration as a Clerk, as a subordinate Judicial, Revenue, or Police Officer; as a Professor in a College or teacher in a school; in various capacities in the Department of Public Works, the Forest Department, the Telegraph, the Railway, the Medical Service. In all he holds appointments involving considerable trust and exercising zeal, energy, activity. And in some Provinces he has attained his present position despite strenuous antagonism on the part of his countrymen brought up in the old school, who were naturally anxious to keep in their families posts regarded from length of tenure, as hereditary possessions. That this antagonism was for so long so efficient, resulted, in a considerable measure, from an unwillingness on the part of civil officers to employ a class of men with whom they had but slight acquaintance, and who were without the necessary apprenticeship to official life. Such un-

willingness is becoming a thing of the past. Throughout the country Civil officers have begun to discover and readily to acknowledge, that in integrity, capacity for work, intelligence, industry, the subordinate trained in college excels his fellows brought up in the traditions of the past. At the Bar, a profession which in many ways is eminently suited to the bent of the native mind, the ex-students of our colleges have made their way with honourable success. Even in the Presidency towns, though pitted against distinguished English lawyers, they carry off a large share of the practice, acquitting themselves with especial credit in civil cases. If their legal acumen has, for its very subtlety, sometimes been the subject of doubtful compliment, many of their number are conspicuous for grasp of subject and breadth of view. Though pleading in a foreign tongue, they not seldom display an eloquence and power of debate which would command admiration before any English tribunal. Some of the ablest of them have attained to the Bench of the Calcutta High Court, Madras and Bombay tell the same tale, and though in the backward Provinces the number of distinguished advocates is not large, a Mussalman student, once a student of the Benares College, was recently called to fill a vacancy in the Allahabad High Court. In the District Courts, where of old chicanery and many questionable devices so largely prevailed, the influence of the educated native pleader has generally been of a healthy kind. And when this is the case it is especially creditable to him. For, away from the eye of those whose disapproval would mean loss of professional caste, and exposed to influences and temptations such as perhaps advocacy in no country confronts, he has need of a strong moral rectitude and much earnestness of purpose. But with the support of the wholesome pride which the members of his

profession feel in so honourable a career, it every day becomes easier to him to emulate the dignity and self-respect which are so peculiarly characteristic of the English Bar. Government Service and the Law, as we have said, engage the attention of the majority of our graduates and under-graduates. A smaller number betake themselves to private service as clerks, assistants or managers. Some engage in trade. They are however, comparatively few. For commerce needs capital and hereditary aptitude for business, neither of which is usually possessed in any sufficient degree by those educated in our colleges. Where, indeed, a commercial career is chosen by them, the general testimony is of the same purport as that borne to the credit with which they fill other positions in life. Such testimony coming from various quarters, and having reference to a variety of occupations, we might easily quote at great length.*Of the morality of our ex-students question has sometimes been made; not so much because experience justified an accusation, as because it was pre-supposed that those who received no definite religious instruction must necessarily have but little reverence for a moral law to which were attached no divine sanctions. There is, however, no reason whatever why a scientific education should lower the standard of conduct. It is true that such education tends to weaken and destroy primitive beliefs, but morality is independent of those beliefs, and a young man's studies at College are certainly not calculated to weaken his appreciation of moral truths. Nor in estimating the effect which Collegiate education has had upon religious belief, ought we to forget the large extent to which students have joined the Brahmo Somaj and other

* Here follow the testimony of Sir M. R. Westropp, Sir William Wedderburn, and Sir Charles Turner.

Theistic Associations of the same character, or the constant prominence given in their public writings and discussions to the subject of a reformed faith. In the restricted sense of integrity, the higher level that prevails is certified by the evidence of facts and the evidence of words. It is not merely the Government officer who now feels himself able to place reliance upon the uprightness of his subordinates. The same is the case with commercial men, with managers of Banks, with Railway companies. Dishonest servants are, of course, sometimes found among highly-educated natives of India, as they are sometimes found among highly-educated natives of England. And equally, of course, the most has been made of such instances to discredit an education novel in kind and therefore disliked by many. If, again, under the term morality, we include those qualities which tend to the general welfare of a people, then in a larger sense has the highly-educated native vindicated his claim to our respect. For it is he whose enterprise and enthusiasm have done much to rouse self-effort in education, and whose munificence has not seldom made that possible. It is he who has created the native press in its most intelligent form. His are the various societies, literary and scientific, societies for religious and for social reform. To his activity it is due that vernacular literature is so rapidly multiplying its utility. From his number have come men who have guided the policy of Native States at critical times, and filled with dignity important offices under the British Government. Still, desirous as we are fully to acknowledge the good effects of Collegiate education, we do not shut our eyes to certain deficiencies of result and certain positive evils ascribed to various defects of system. We cannot affirm that in education has been found a sufficient cure for the com-

parative absence of lofty motive and of a sense of public duty which for long centuries has been an admitted drawback on so much that is attractive in the character of natives of India. We cannot deny that though the standard of morality is higher than it was, it is still a morality based to a large extent upon considerations of a prudent self-interest rather than upon any higher principles of action. Moral strength of purpose under circumstances in which such strength has nothing but itself to rely upon is too often conspicuous by its absence; and great intellectual attainments are by no means always accompanied by great elevation of character. On the other hand, however, it must not be forgotten that improvements in this matter, especially under the conditions imposed by the past history of the country, must be the work of several generations. In the minor matter of courtesy and good manners, it is also objected that there has been a distinct deterioration; that in their desire to cast off the reproach of subservience, educated natives have mistaken rudeness of behaviour for dignified independence. This charge within certain limits admits of no dispute. Still, it is a result at which we cannot greatly wonder when we take into account the ugly faults and unpleasant symptoms that accompany a period of transition. Again, those who most fully recognise the general improvement, ascribe it to influences of which education is but one, and by no means the most prominent one; though to this it may perhaps be replied that it is education which has brought about a state of mind upon which alone those other influences could work. There is another respect, of a different, and more special character, in which Collegiate education has as yet certainly failed. With a few brilliant exceptions, no eminent scholars are to be found in the long list of University graduates. Two reasons, however,

go a great way to account for this fact. One is to be found in the character of the academic system in its earlier days. That system aimed rather at giving a general education than at encouraging special knowledge. The more recent reforms all tend towards the substitution of a small number of subjects for the multifarious requirements which experience has condemned. A second reason is the poverty of the Indian student. To one out of five hundred, it is a matter of indifference whether, when he goes out into the world he can at once earn his livelihood. With the rest, employment in some shape or other is a necessity; and that employment rarely leaves him leisure or inclination to carry on studies of which he has but come to the threshold. Private liberality has done much for education in many directions. But the endowment of research is not one of those directions. A life of learned ease is almost unknown to the Indian student; his success must be a success of a practical character; his ambition waits upon his daily wants. In judging of the results already attained, many allowances have to be made; above all the allowance of time. Even in the most advanced province of India, collegiate education of the present type is barely fifty years old; in some parts of the country its life measures less than half the span; in some it has not yet begun. It must be remembered, too, that that education is of exotic growth, or rather, that it has been imposed upon the country by an alien power. If the advent of the philosopher, the moralist, the reformer, of which Sir Charles Turner is so hopeful, be still "a far off adorable dream," it is but a sober estimate which declares that, directly or indirectly, collegiate education has been beneficial in a variety of ways to an extensive portion of a vast empire."

Internal Administration of the Department.

The chapter on the Internal Administration of the Education Department begins with a description of the constitution of the Education Department in the different Provinces of India, and then proceeds to discuss the following proposals; (1) the association with the Director in each Province of a Consulting Board of Education; (2) the transfer to the Universities of a large portion of the control now exercised by the Department; (3) the similar transfer of control to District Boards or other local bodies; (4) the abolition of the Provincial Directorships. The proposal to abolish the Provincial Directorships found no support in the Commission, and was not even suggested as a matter for discussion. With regard to the extension of the functions of the University, the Commission did not make any definite recommendation but only pointed out that some of the attempts that had been made to enlarge the functions of the Calcutta University did not succeed. On behalf of the proposal to constitute Provincial Boards of Education to aid the Directors it was urged that such Boards would bring about and maintain a complete understanding between the Department and the University and be in a position, as representing the feelings and wishes of the community at large, to aid the Department with information and advice on educational questions of every kind. The Board, it was proposed, should be a consultative body merely. Against the proposal it was urged that the appointment of a Central Board, whether vested with actual authority or merely consultative, would be at best an unsatisfactory expedient. To give the proposed Board any real power over higher education would be premature, and over lower education dangerous. It was also pointed out that the objections to the establishment of the Board would be equally strong, even if it were merely consultative. "Whatever other advan-

tages might attend it, the establishment of a Board whose duties were limited to advising the Director was incompatible with the conditions under which alone a great department of Government could be administered. It was in the highest degree essential that the Education Department should, on the one hand, work in full co-operation with the University, and, on the other, that it should respond to the movements of educated opinion and to the reasonable desires of different sections of the community, scattered over the districts and towns of the Province. The first object could be attained without the intervention of a representative Board, on which many interests besides those of the University were represented. The second promised indeed to be secured by the appointment of a representative Board, but the benefit would be purchased at the price of efficient administration. To interpose a consultative Board between the Government and its responsible officer would be to destroy responsibility and to replace expedition by delay. A Board such as that proposed must contain representatives of many conflicting interests; its members must include men of various creeds; advocates of the higher and advocates of the lower education; representatives of departmental agency, and representatives of private effort; delegates from the districts as well as residents in the Presidency towns. A Board so composed would be perpetually engaged in the discussions of first principles; and if action were to wait on their settlement by the Board, prompt action would be impossible. It was essential to efficient administration that the responsibility of the head of the Department to Government should be absolute." These arguments prevailed; and the proposal was rejected though only by a narrow majority. The Commission at the same time was convinced that nothing but good can result from the occasional or even frequent associa-

tion, in a somewhat formal way, of departmental officers with others interested in education, and hence recommended that Conferences (1) of officers of the Education Department; and (2) of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education, the Director of Public Instruction being in each case *ex-officio* President of the Conference. On the subject of the increase of the inspecting staff the Commission recommended "that native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage all education as far as possible; but that the results must be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province." One of the recommendations regarding Inspectors distinctly laid down "that native gentlemen of approved qualifications are eligible for the post of Inspectors of Schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto." The formation of Text-book Committees was also strongly advised and two of the recommendations on these Committees relate to the inclusion of independent members in the Standing Committee, and to the interchange of information between the Committees of different Provinces.

External Re-
lations of the
Department.

One of the most important chapters in the Report is that on External Relations of the Department to individuals and public bodies. The chapter begins with a description of the relation of the State to non-departmental educational effort, as indicated in the Despatch of 1854 and subsequent Despatches, and then proceeds to recount the growth of private enterprise in education, giving a brief sketch of the progress of aided education since 1854. The history of private educational effort in Madras is thus des-

cribed :—" Long before 1854 the demand for a knowledge of English was far from inconsiderable, and many schools were in existence in which the instruction given was of a European type ; and experience has shown—as the Despatch of 1854 pointed out—that such schools form the foundation on which a system of Grants-in-aid can be based most easily. The State, it is true, had done but little to awaken a taste for English education. There were only three advanced Government schools in existence when the Department was organised. But the people of the country had themselves established English schools. In those conducted by Pachaiyappah's Trustees alone, more than a thousand pupils were being educated. Missionaries also, by whom the desire for English education had first been kindled, were doing probably more than in any other part of India to meet the desire they had awakened. It is known that in 1851, there were in various parts of the Presidency about 1,000 Mission schools with some 30,000 pupils, of whom probably 3,000 were receiving at least the elements of a liberal culture, while all were being trained after western methods. Even in 1826, long before any general State system of education was established, 12,000 such schools were roughly ascertained to be at work with more than 160,000 pupils ; and whatever else such schools may have done or not done, they must at least have familiarized the popular mind with the idea of self-help in matters of elementary education. Altogether the facts of the case seemed to warrant the anticipation which is implied in these words of the Despatch of 1854 :—" The Presidency of Madras offers a fair field for the adoption of our scheme of education in its integrity, by founding Anglo-Vernacular institutions, only where no such places of instruction at present exist which might, by grants-in-aid and other assistance, adequately supply

the educational wants of the people.' Yet the system of aided education was very slow in taking root. The first rules under which grants were offered were published in August 1855 ; but although a few schools applied for aid under them and received it on a liberal scale, especially in the form of aid for buildings, the greater number of the privately managed schools already in existence went on independently of Government, and it does not appear that the offer of aid led to the opening of any appreciable number of new schools. The failure so far of the Grant-in-aid system was ascribed by the Director of Public Instruction in 1858, to the want of definiteness and precision in the rules, so that managers did not really know what obligations they might be brought under by accepting aid. But it was due probably quite as much to the fact that private managers were content with their institutions as they existed, and had little desire to extend their sphere of usefulness. New rules were introduced in 1858, which had for their leading feature that system of aiding in the payment of certificated teachers which is known as the salary grant system...The new rules were minute and detailed to a degree, yet but little extension of aided education followed. Managers seemed to be still for the most part disinclined to co-operate with Government. It was not till a third set of rules came into force, on the 1st of January 1865, that the system fairly took root. The new rules, in framing which there had been much and prolonged consultation with those interested in non-Government education, were better adapted to actual circumstances. They were less minute and more liberal than those of 1858, especially in the way of giving some aid on account of teachers who were qualified but uncertificated, and in introducing the system of payment by results for elementary schools. The revised system of salary grants produced a mark-

ed effect at once, but the details of the rules were found to be unsuitable, and these rules remained for sometime almost a dead letter. They were issued in a revised form in 1868, and under the Code thus completed, the success of aided education in Madras has been unequivocal and great." In taking a general view of the aid afforded by the Grant-in-aid system to private effort, the Commission came to the following conclusion :—" Such increased encouragement as has been given to private effort by means of the Grant-in-aid system, has been in the extension of Primary and not, as the Despatches chiefly contemplate, of more advanced education." The Commission was also of opinion that with due encouragement from the State, private effort was capable, in favorable circumstances, of promoting education at the secondary, and in a less degree at the collegiate stage at a far more rapid rate, and in both cases at far less expense than have marked the progress of education up till then. The following are some of the important recommendations contained in Chap. VIII. :—

"That while existing State institutions of the higher grade should be maintained in complete efficiency wherever they are necessary, the improvement and extension of privately managed institutions be the principal care of the Department."

"That, in ordinary circumstances, the further extension of secondary education in any District be left to the operation of the Grant-in-aid system, as soon as that system is provided with an efficient high school, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders."

"That it be a general principle that the Grant-in-aid should depend :—

(a) On locality, *i. e.*, that larger proportionate grants be given to schools in backward districts ; (b)

on the class of institutions, *i. e.*, that larger proportionate grants be given to those in which a large amount of self-support cannot be expected, *e.g.*, Girls' schools and schools for lower castes and backward races."

"That the following be adopted as general principles to regulate the amount of Grants-in-aid, except in cases in which recommendations for special aid have been made :—

(a) That no grant be given to an institution which has become self-supporting by means of fees, and which needs no further development to meet the wants of the locality.

(b) That the amount of State aid (exclusive of Scholarships from public funds) does not exceed one-half of the entire expenditure on an institution.

(c) That, as a general rule, this maximum rate of aid be given only to Girls' schools, Primary schools and Normal schools."

"That the further extension of female education be preferentially promoted by affording liberal aid and encouragement to managers who show their present interest in the work, and only when such agency is not available by the establishment of schools under the management of the Department or of local or of Municipal Boards."

"That a periodically increasing provision be made in the Educational Budget of each Province for the expansion of aided institutions."

"That if in any Province the management of Government schools of secondary instruction be transferred either to Municipalities or Local Boards, or to Committees appointed by these bodies, encouragement be given to the subsequent transfer of the schools concerned to the management of associations of pri-

vate persons combining locally with that object, provided they are able to afford adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency."

"That the system of Grants-in-aid be based, as hitherto, in accordance with paragraph 53 of the Despatch of 1854, on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the institution assisted ; provided that when the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it should be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution."

"That in order to evoke and stimulate local co-operation in the transfer to private management of Government institutions for collegiate or secondary instruction, aid at specially liberal rates be offered for a term of years, whenever necessary, to any local body willing to undertake the management of any such institution, under adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency."

"That all Directors of Public Instruction aim at the gradual transfer to local native management of Government schools of secondary instruction (including schools attached to first or second grade Colleges), in every case in which the transfer can be effected without lowering the standard, or diminishing the supply of education, and without endangering the permanence of the institution transferred."

The following were some of the considerations urged in favour of the withdrawal of the State from the direct provision and management of education, especially of Higher Education :—Saving to Public funds ; possibility of the improvement in the results of private effort ; need of variety in the type of edu-

cation ; encouragement to religious instruction. With regard to withdrawal in favour of Missionaries, the Commission say :—" We think it well to put on record our unanimous opinion that withdrawal of direct departmental agency should not take place in favour of Missionary bodies, and the departmental institutions of the higher order should not be transferred to Missionary management. In expressing this view we are merely re-echoing what is implied in the Resolution appointing the Commission, since it is 'to bodies of native gentlemen who will undertake to manage them satisfactorily as aided institutions,' that Government in that Resolution expresses its willingness to hand over any of its own colleges or schools in suitable "cases." It is not impossible that the restriction thus imposed upon the policy of transfer or withdrawal, may be represented as offered to strict neutrality, which should altogether set aside the question whether a school or a body of managers inculcates any religious tenets or not. But it is so manifestly desirable to keep the whole of the future development of private effort in education free from difficulties connected with religion, that the course which we advise seems to us to be agreeable to the spirit, if not to the letter, of the strictest doctrine of neutrality "

The Salary and Result of Grant systems : their advantages and disadvantages.

In chap. VIII. the different systems of Grant-in-aid, their advantages and disadvantages, are also fully discussed. The Salary-grant system, which is peculiar to Madras, is regarded by the Commission as possessing numerous advantages of which the following among others are mentioned. It tends to ensure efficiency by inducing managers to employ teachers who have proved by success at an examination that they have acquired a certain amount of knowledge and some fitness for imparting it to others. It is

likely to provide a body of thoroughly trained teachers and to secure that ultimately the great and important work of education will not be left to men incompetent to perform it. The system leaves the greatest freedom to managers as regards the choice of textbooks and all other points in the internal economy of schools, and so supplies a strong inducement to private educational effort. Under this system, there is little danger of information being confounded with education. Neither teachers nor pupils are compelled to work under high pressure to prepare for examinations, nor are they tempted to give their main attention to getting up the special points that are most likely to be noticed by the Inspector on his visit. The system also provides in a natural and easy manner for the growth of institutions. If managers wish to open an additional class and the department is convinced that it is really needed, a duly certificated teacher is employed, and an additional grant of the fixed proportion of his salary is bestowed. The system tends also to give stability to an institution; since the grant depends upon the quality of the staff, and not on the number of pupils or their success at examinations. The disadvantages of the system are also at the same time pointed out. There is a danger under it of a school being content with mediocrity, since no pecuniary result depends upon excellence of any kind. It is, of course, understood that continued failure to produce satisfactory results will cause the grant to be withdrawn or reduced; but this is commonly too distant a prospect to have much practical influence. There is danger too of teachers being employed nominally at high salaries, and getting in reality little more than that proportion of the nominal salary which is paid by the State. As regards the advantages of the Results system it was pointed out: that it enables

the Inspector to gauge the attainments of scholars and to apply praise or blame with an amount of firmness and decision impossible under any system that pays less attention to the examination of individual pupils; that it tends powerfully to secure activity and energy of some kind on the part of both managers and teachers, since, unless the pupils be worked up to a fair standard of proficiency, the material resources of the school must fall off, and all connected with it must sooner or later suffer, and that the system enables the Department readily to compare the results obtained in different schools and different districts, and thus not only to estimate with much greater precision than possible under any other system, the progress that education is making throughout the country, but also to stimulate educational activity by awaking the spirit of emulation. The disadvantages are also not overlooked. Among others the following are mentioned. An obvious disadvantage arises from the almost proverbial uncertainty of the results of examination. The system tends to make everything depend on such results, and these, in their turn, are affected by many accidents. The standard demanded by Inspectors necessarily varies with their individual characteristics. The same class may thus earn much larger grants under one Inspector than it would under another. The accidental illness of a few good pupils on the day of inspection may seriously diminish the grant for the whole year. Again, it is a disadvantage of the system that it tends to give most aid to managers who require aid least, and least to those who need it most. It gives no aid to a school at starting, when its difficulties are naturally greatest. Another disadvantage inseparable from the system is its tendency to create antagonism between managers and inspecting officers, and so between managers and the department as a whole.

The system also requires for its universal application a very large inspecting agency. But the chief disadvantage of the system is its making examination the main object of the thoughts alike of pupils and of teachers, and thus tending to give entirely false views of the meaning and purpose of education. Notwithstanding these defects, it is admitted that the system has been highly useful in promoting especially Primary education.

Chapter IX. of the Report deals with the education of classes requiring special treatment. The first subject dealt with is the education of the native nobility and the recommendation on this subject is "that Local Governments be invited to consider the question of establishing special colleges or schools for the sons and relatives of Native Chiefs and Noblemen where such institutions do now exist." The education of Muhammadans is next dealt with and the measures taken in the different provinces for the promotion of their education are described fully. Among the recommendations bearing on Muhammadan education we have the following :—

Education
of Special
Classes.

"That the special encouragement of Muhammadan education be regarded as a legitimate charge on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds."

"That indigenous Muhammadan schools be liberally encouraged to add purely secular subjects to their course of instruction."

"That special standards for Muhammadan Primary schools be prescribed."

"That higher English education for Muhammadans, being the kind of education in which that community needs special help, be liberally encouraged."

"That where necessary graduated system of special scholarships for Muhammadans be established."

“That associations for the promotion of Muhammadan education be encouraged.”

The following are the recommendations regarding the education of low-caste children :—

“That the principle laid down in the Court of Director’s letter of 5th May 1854, and again in their reply to the letter of the Government of India, dated 20th May 1857, ‘that no boy be refused admission to a Government College or school merely on the ground of caste,’ and repeated by the Secretary of State in 1863, be now re-affirmed as a principle, and be applied with due caution to every institution, not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds, whether Provincial, Municipal or Local.”

“That the establishment of special schools or classes for children of low castes be liberally encouraged in places where there are a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools already maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education.”

Female Education.

In chapter X, which relates to female education, the Commission deal first with the difficulties in the way of the spread of this branch of education. The Report says :—“The most serious impediments arise not so much from the action or inaction of the Ruling Power, as from the customs of the people themselves. In the first place, the effective desire for education as a means of earning a livelihood, does not exist as regards the female part of the population. There is evidence before the Commission that a demand for girls’ education in schools is slowly but surely springing up among the natives. There is also evidence to show that this desire is of comparatively recent origin, and that it would be easy to exaggerate its extent In the second place, the social customs of

India in regard to child-marriage, and the seclusion in which women of the well-to-do classes spend their married life in most parts of the country, create difficulties which embarrass the promoters of Female education at every step. The duration of the school-going age for girls is much shorter than that for boys. It usually terminates at nine, and seldom extends beyond the eleventh year. At so early an age a girl's education is scarcely begun, and in very few cases has the married child the opportunities of going on with her education after she leaves school. In the third place, the supply of teachers for girls' schools is more scanty in quantity and less satisfactory in quality than the supply of teachers for boys' schools. Finally, the State system of instruction is conducted in a large measure by a male staff; and although female teachers are being gradually trained, in very inadequate numbers, the direction and inspection remain in the hands of male officers, while the textbooks, as a rule, are framed with a view to the education of boys rather than of girls." The last two objections, however, were less applicable to Madras, as will be seen from the history of female education in this Presidency. On the subject of Zenana Mission, the Commission remark as follows:—"The most successful efforts yet made to educate Indian women after leaving school, have been conducted by Missionaries. In every province of India, ladies have devoted themselves to the work of teaching in the homes of such native families as are willing to receive them. Their instruction is confined to the female members of the household, and, although based on Christian teaching, is extended to secular subjects. The degree in which the two classes of instruction are given, varies in different Zenana Missions; but in almost every case secular teaching forms part of the scheme. Experience seems to have convinced a

large proportion of the zealous labourers in this field, that the best preparation for their special or religious work, consists in the quickening of the intellectual nature which is produced by exercising the mind in the ordinary subjects of education. The largest and most successful of the Zenana Missions are composed of one or more English ladies, with a trained staff of Native Christians or Anglo-Indian young women who teach in the Zenanas allotted to them. They derive their funds from the Missionary Societies in Europe and America, supplemented in many cases by local subscriptions in India, and by the private means of the English ladies who conduct the work..... The two impediments in the way of their more rapid extension are—first, the natural reluctance of many natives to admit into their families any influence hostile to their own religious beliefs; and, secondly, the uncertain attitude of the Education Department towards such Missions. With the first of these obstacles the Commission cannot deal. But we have observed that much has been accomplished in this respect by the tact, courtesy, and wise moderation of the ladies engaged in the work. The second impediment comes within our cognisance; and we have provided for it by a specific recommendation, that grants for Zenana teaching be recognized as a proper charge on public funds, and be given under rules which will enable those engaged in it, to obtain substantial aid for such secular teaching as may be tested by an Inspectress, or other female agency.” The following are other important recommendations bearing on female education :—

“ That female education be treated as a legitimate charge alike on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds, and receive special encouragement.”

“ That the condition of aid to girls’ schools be easier than to boys’ schools and the rates higher—more

especially in the case of those established for poor or for low-caste girls."

"That the greatest care be exercised in the selection of suitable text-books for girls' schools, and that the preparation of such books be encouraged."

"That rules be framed to promote the gradual supercession of male by female teachers in all girls' schools."

"That female inspecting agency be regarded as essential to the full development of female education, and be more largely employed than hitherto."

"That an alternative examination in subjects suitable for girls be established, corresponding in standard to the Matriculation Examination, but having no relation to any existing University course."

Section V.—Education from 1881 to 1894.

General Progress of education during Mr. Grigg's Administration.

Mr. H. B. Grigg, of the Madras Civil Service, assumed charge of the office of Director of Public Instruction on the 1st July 1880. His administration extended over a period of twelve years, ceasing in November 1892, on his appointment as British Resident in Travancore and Cochin. His was a very eventful administration, and at the same time a most progressive one. It fell to him to carry out the recommendations of the Education Commission; and the various reforms initiated by him will be noticed fully in this Section. Here, however, the general progress of education during his administration will be indicated briefly by reference to a few facts and to a few statistics.* On the 31st March 1881 the number of institutions in this Presidency of all classes and grades was 12,878 and the number of pupils 327,808; on the 31st March 1893 the number of institutions was 24,316 and the number of scholars 734,404. Within the space of twelve years, therefore, the number of schools doubled itself, the same being the case with the number of scholars. Without going into details, some of the salient features of this remarkable progress may be noticed here. When Mr. Grigg took charge of the Department there were 24 Arts Colleges in existence of which 10 were under public and only 14 under private management; in 1893 the total number rose to 35, of which 7 were under public and 28 under private management. The attendance in Arts Colleges during this period increased from 1,521 to 3,537. The number of Professional colleges doubled itself from 3 to 6. Upper Secondary schools for boys advanced

* *Vide* Statistical Table IV.

from 76 to 134, and attendance in them from 4,311 to 10,071. Middle schools for boys, English and Vernacular, which numbered 404, with a strength of 15,625 in 1881, rose to 460 in 1893 with as many as 23,506 pupils. Primary schools for boys advanced from 11,793 to 19,097 and attendance in them from 283,216 to 574,668. Progress in female education was equally marked. The total number of girls under instruction in 1881 in schools of all grades was 32,341. This number more than trebled itself within 12 years, for the number of girls under instruction in 1893 was 104,988. Equally conspicuous was the development of special education. The twenty-six Training schools for masters in 1881 rose to 54 in 1893, and the number of Training schools for mistresses advanced from 3 to 17. The total number of male and female teachers trained in these institutions also more than doubled itself. In 1881 there were only 11 professional schools with an attendance of 616 pupils; in 1893 there were 27 such schools with a total strength of 2,598 pupils. Nor was the progress in the various branches of education merely *extensive*: the internal improvement in schools was also very considerable as will be seen from the various educational developments hereinafter to be noted.

Between the year 1881 and 1893, the total number of candidates that appeared for the Matriculation Examination was 70,338 of whom 20,144 passed.* During this period the total number that appeared for the First in Arts Examination was 18,261 of whom 6,169 passed. For the B. A. Degree Examination altogether 5,412 appeared and 3,075 passed. Up to 31st March 1893, 56 graduates had obtained the degree of Master of Arts, 7 the degree of Master of Laws, 428 that of Bachelor of Laws and 53

Progress of
the University
of Madras.

* *Vide* Statistical Table V.

that of Bachelor of Engineering. Several important changes were effected in the by-laws of the University during this period. In 1881 certain verbal alterations were made which had the effect of placing graduates in Arts of any University in the British empire, who may have taken up their residence in this Presidency, on an equal footing with the *alumni* of the Indian Universities so far as the right to compete for the Law degrees of this University and the privileges connected therewith are concerned. Similar privileges were conferred on men who have taken the degree of M. B. and C. M. in any University in the empire. The year 1882-83 was one of great activity in the annals of the University. After long inquiry and much discussion several important and salutary changes were sanctioned in its by-laws. The foremost among these changes were those relating to the new curriculum of studies in Arts. The leading features of the new scheme were:—For the M. A. degree examination the number of branches

<i>Old.</i>	<i>New.</i>	was increased
I. Language.	I. Mathematics & Natural Philosophy.	from five to six,
II. Mathematica.	II. Physical Science.— (a) Physics or (b) Chemistry.	or, including the optional courses under Physical Science and
III. Physical Science.	III. Natural Science.— (a) Botany and Physiology or (b) Zoology, Geology and Physical Geography.	Natural Science, eight as shewn in the margin. Under the old scheme
IV. Biology.	IV. Mental and Moral Science.	candidates for
V. Mental Philosophy and Sociology.	V. History.	the Language
	VI. Language.	branch had to

qualify in English and one of the classical languages; under the new scheme, candidates were allowed to appear in

English or a classical language (Urdu being added to Persian), or the group of the Dravidian languages (Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Canarese); but the continued study of the optional language selected by the candidates in the B. A. degree was secured by a provision requiring translation from English into the selected language and *vice versâ*. The B. A. curriculum was modified on the same principle. Candidates for this degree were required to qualify in English, a second language, and an optional subject, instead of in English, a second language, History, Mental Philosophy and an optional subject. Opportunity was taken to raise the minimum prescribed for a pass in the second language from one-fourth to one-third—a measure intended to raise the standard of teaching in the vernacular languages. From the subjects of the First Examination in Arts, Arithmetic was removed, and a new subject (Logic) was added. The whole of the Physics Primer and of the Chemistry Primer, and nearly the whole of Arithmetic were prescribed for the Matriculation course, and English History was added to it; as also French and German to the list of second languages.* New by-laws relating to the appointment and duties of examiners were also sanctioned during the year and a few amendments were made in the by-laws relating to application for examinerships and to the duties of the Syndicate and of the Registrar. A scheme of examination for the proposed B. Sc. Degree was also under preparation during the year. In 1883-84, by-laws regulating the meetings of the Senate, the order of business to be followed at such meetings, the rules of debate, the appointment of committees,

* The first examination under this revised curriculum was held in December 1884 in the case of the Matriculation and First in Arts Examination, and in January 1887 in the case of the B. A. and M. A. Degree Examinations.

and the conduct of elections for University offices, were drawn up by a committee appointed by the Senate. These were adopted by that body, and sanctioned by Government. Some changes in the by-laws relating to the holding of Convocations for conferring degrees were also sanctioned. The scheme of examination for the proposed Bachelor of Science degree was discussed by the Senate, but not finally adopted. The Senate had also under consideration the question of instituting a Convocation of graduates, a proposal which had been brought forward by Dr. Wilson, and resolutions were passed in favour of the proposal. A Draft Bill accordingly to amend Act XXVII. of 1857 was prepared by the Senate and even placed before the Government of India, but the local Government recorded its opinion that, while the desire to create such a body was not unreasonable, special regard being had to the conditions of Madras, yet, the question was one which must be viewed in connection with all the Indian Universities. Early in the official year 1884-85, the fees for the Matriculation, F. A., and B. A. Examinations were raised from Rs. 10, Rs. 20, Rs. 30, to Rs. 12, Rs. 24, Rs. 36, respectively, and the appointment of an Assistant Registrar, which was one of the objects contemplated in raising the fees, was carried out in the autumn, the necessary changes in the by-laws and the additions to them receiving the sanction of Government. In place of the committees annually appointed to select text-books for the various examinations, there were instituted Boards of Studies, consisting solely of Fellows of the University possessing special qualifications in the respective branches of knowledge and with a settled organization and defined duties and responsibilities. The by-laws regarding these Boards were approved by Government in February 1885. The revision of the by-laws and regulations relating to the examina-

tions in Medicine, which had been under consideration since the middle of the year 1882, was concluded after full and lengthy discussion by the Senate of the original and supplemental reports of the Faculty of Medicine, and received the sanction of Government towards the close of the official year. At the request of a large number of gentlemen connected with higher education, the Senate resolved to institute a Degree in Teaching and to consider in committee the very elaborate scheme submitted to them. The Senate also had under consideration certain proposals with regard to the B. A. Examination originally brought forward by Mr. Grigg with a view to secure the following ends:—(1) The entire separation of the Language examination from the examination in the Optional Branches, (2) the extension of study in the Optional Branches by permitting candidates to appear for examination in more than one branch, (3) the creation of a modified form of Pass Examination by providing that candidates passing in the third class should be arranged in alphabetical order. The changes in the by-laws required to carry out these objects were adopted by the Senate in committee and awaited at the close of the official year the final sanction of Government, which was accorded in May 1885. The scheme of studies and examinations for the proposed Bachelor of Science Degree remained where it was at the close of the previous year. In 1885-86, the question having been raised whether candidates who had passed the M. A. Degree Examination in one branch might be allowed to appear for examination in another branch, the by-laws were altered so as to permit candidates to pass in two or more branches before proceeding to the degree of M. A. The rules relating to the certificates of affiliation required under Section XII. of the Act of Incorporation having been found to work badly, they

were revised so as to secure the maintenance of internal discipline in the several affiliated colleges, and at the same time protect the interests of students in those cases where they might possibly be endangered. In October 1885 Government sanctioned the institution of a Degree of Licentiate in Teaching. The subjects for the examination for this degree were grouped under three heads (I.) Principles of Education, (II.) History of Education, (III.) Methods of Teaching and School Management. The Senate did not resume consideration of the scheme of studies and examinations for the proposed B. Sc. Degree. In 1886-87, Hebrew was added to the optional languages prescribed for the Matriculation, F. A. and B. A. Examinations, revised forms of applications for the B. A. and M. A. Examinations were prescribed, and attendance certificates in conformity with the requirements of the by-laws relating to the Medical Examinations were adopted. The report of the B. Sc. committee was adopted by the Senate, but the scheme not having been matured, the committee was enlarged to report on certain matters of detail referred to it. During the year the Senate appointed a committee to suggest suitable costumes for the L. T. and B. Sc. Degrees and to consider also the suitability or otherwise of the Academical dress prescribed for the graduates of the University. This committee proposed that white gowns should be substituted for those then in vogue, but when the question was brought before the Senate in 1887 for final decision, the resolutions of the committee were thrown out, and black was prescribed for all the University degrees. This decision was in accordance with the wishes of the great majority of the graduates. To meet the requirements of candidates, chiefly from Hyderabad, Marathi was added to the list of optional languages for the Matriculation, F. A. and B. A. degree examinations in 1887-88. The

course of study for the B. L. degree examination was extended from two to three years, and considerable changes were made in the curricula of studies as well as in the rules and regulations of the B. L. and M. L. degree examinations. The fee for the M. L. degree examination was raised from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100 and the minimum time allowed for a candidate to appear for that examination, after passing that for the B. L. degree, was increased from one to two years. The report of the B. Sc. committee was also laid before the Senate, and the rules relating to the First Examination in Science were adopted with a few alterations ; those for the B. Sc. degree examination were still under the consideration of the committee at the close of the year. On the recommendation of the Syndicate, a proposal to change the time for holding the examinations in the Arts course from November, December and January to March, April and May was brought before the Senate in December 1887, but was finally rejected.

In 1888-89, the Senate had under consideration the scheme of a new Government examination, known as the High School Examination, which was meant to give effect to the principle of bifurcation in Upper Secondary education recommended by the Education Commission. The Senate did not approve of the scheme and the resolution passed was to the effect that the High School scheme, in the form proposed by the committee appointed in G. O., dated 24th August 1887, No. 458, Educational, would interfere seriously with liberal education, and that "no public examination that is to be enforced as a test of general or technical education should be directly connected with the Public Service." In the course of the discussion, however, it was admitted that the standard of the Matriculation examination was not sufficiently high for candidates beginning a University career and it was accordingly resolved to refer the whole

question to a committee of ten Fellows. The minimum required for a pass in the classical languages at the Matriculation examination was raised to that fixed for the Vernaculars, so that those taking up Sanskrit and other classical languages might not be given any undue advantage over others. It was also decided in the same year by the Faculty of Engineering that the standard of the B. C. E degree examination should be raised, and the whole course remodelled; and a committee of the Faculty was appointed to prepare a revised scheme. The question of the establishment of a separate Law College, with reference to G. O., dated 7th November 1888, No. 634, Educational, came under the consideration of the Faculty of Law. The by-laws relating to the new degree of Licentiate in Sanitary Science were finally approved by Government. In 1889-90, the by-laws relating to the procedure to be followed at Convocations were re-framed. Burmese was added to the list of optional languages for the Matriculation examination, and French and German, which had hitherto been recognized for the Matriculation and F.A. examinations only, were made optional languages for the B. A. degree examination as well. Some important changes were contemplated in the rules relating to the affiliation of Colleges to the University. In connection with the discussion which took place on the Upper Secondary examination scheme, it was resolved that the whole question of the Matriculation examination should be considered by a committee with a view, if necessary, to raise the standard of this examination. In 1890-91 the revised rules relating to affiliation were finally passed. They empower the Syndicate to refuse affiliation unless satisfied that the institution has sufficient accommodation and proper sanitary arrangements, an adequate supply of furniture and appliances, an

efficient staff and a satisfactory financial basis. Hitherto, First Grade Arts Colleges had been affiliated irrespective of the particular branches of the B. A. degree examination in which they were prepared to furnish instruction; the new rules provide for affiliation only in respect of those branches for which due provision is made in the way of teaching. Important changes in the by-laws regulating the Matriculation and F. A. examinations were under the consideration of the Senate, and were given effect to in the following year. The Senate had also under consideration the rules sanctioned by Government regarding the recognition of public institutions. Revised regulations regarding the examinations in Medicine received the final approval of the Senate. The by-laws relating to the examination in Engineering, after having been thoroughly revised by the Faculty, and approved by the Senate, were sanctioned by Government. The word "Civil" was omitted from the designation of the examination and of the corresponding degree. In place of one examination two were prescribed,—a First examination and a Degree examination. To the former only students who, after passing the First Examination in Arts, had completed a course of study for eighteen months in an authorized College of Engineering, were allowed to be admitted; and to the latter those who had completed a further period of study for one year in an authorized College of Engineering, after passing the First Examination in Engineering. The Degree examination was divided into two branches,—a Civil and a Mechanical,—and a candidate was allowed to proceed to his degree in either branch or in both branches. But before obtaining his degree, a candidate who had passed the examination was required to spend not less than one year on engineering works, if he had taken up the Civil Branch, and in an engineering workshop if he had

taken up the Mechanical branch.* Owing to the increase in the work of the University, the Syndicate, towards the close of the official year, laid before the Senate certain proposals with regard to the office of Registrar, the chief of which was that the holder of the office should in future be required to devote his whole time to the work of the University. The revised by-laws relating to the appointment of a full-time Registrar were sanctioned by Government in 1891. In 1891-92 several important changes were made in the scheme of the Matriculation examination and of the First Examination in Arts. Candidates for the Matriculation examination were required to produce certificates to the effect that they had studied in recognized High Schools for a certain period. Physics and Chemistry were separated from History and Geography and the marks assigned to the different branches were re-distributed. Special text-books in the English language were dispensed with, Logic was omitted from the curriculum of the F. A. examination, and Physiography was added as an alternative subject to Physiology. Changes were also effected in the minima required for passing in the different subjects. Revised by-laws relating to the examinations for the degree of Bachelor of Arts were also adopted by the Senate. The examination was divided into three divisions,—English language, Second language and Science,—instead of into two divisions as formerly. A candidate was at liberty to bring up any division, but he was required to qualify in all the divisions before being entitled to his degree. The standard of general attainments for the admission of candidates for the degree of Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery was raised, by the substitution of the First Examina-

*The revised by-laws come into operation in 1894 as regards the First Examination, and in 1895 as regards the Degree Examination.

tion in Arts for the Matriculation examination. It was also ruled that no candidate should be admitted to the examination for the degree of Master of Arts unless he had passed the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in this or some other University of the British Empire, not less than two years previously. The fee for admission to the L. T. degree examination was reduced to Rs. 30, and the examination was fixed to be held in January instead of in March. The Senate also decided that the adoption of any distinctive dress by professors or students was unnecessary and undesirable. In 1892-93 no changes of importance were introduced.

In no other Province has the recommendation of the Education Commission regarding the withdrawal of Government from the direct management of Colleges been carried out so effectually as in Madras. Mr. Grigg set himself at an early period of his administration to induce private individuals, or committees, or Local Boards, able to carry on the work, to undertake the direct management of Collegiate institutions. On the 31st March 1881 there were 10 Arts Colleges—three First Grade and seven Second Grade—maintained by Government. On the 31st March 1893, there were only 4 Government Colleges—three First Grade and one Second Grade. In October 1885 the Government College, Salem, was transferred to the Municipality. In December of the same year the Government College, Bellary, was closed, the Municipal Council having declined to carry it on. On the 31st December 1886 the Government College, Cuddalore, was closed. The abolition of this College resulted the following year in the raising of a High School in the locality, under native management, to a Second Grade College, since known as the Town College, Cuddalore. In 1888 the Berhampore College was handed over to a Native Committee. In the same year the

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Native College, Madura, was formally affiliated to the University of Madras, and the building and library of the old Government institution were lent by Government to the committee for the use of the College. In 1892 the College department of the Government College, Calicut, was closed, and the institution was constituted a Training College. On the 31st March 1893 there were three Second Grade Colleges under Municipal management,—the Municipal College, Salem; the Victoria Jubilee College, Palghat, which was raised to the rank of a Second Grade College in 1888; and the Brennen College, Tellichery. This last was first a private institution and had been managed by the Basel German Mission till the 1st March 1892. After the Mission had retired from its management it was re-opened as a Government Zillah School, and was subsequently transferred to the Municipality. It was affiliated as a Second Grade College in January 1891. Aided Colleges increased from 12 in 1881 to 25 in 1893, and Unaided Colleges from 2 to 3. Of the 25 Aided Colleges eight were of the First Grade as against four in 1881, the number of Second Grade Colleges having advanced from 8 to 17. The statement in the margin which gives particulars

Year.	Total Strength.	Percentage of Increase.	relating to the total attendance in Arts Colleges —First and Second Grades —between 1881 and 1893, brings into prominence more clearly the extraordinary development of collegiate edu-
1880-81.	1,521	...	
1881-82.	1,732	14	
1882-83.	2,060	19	
1883-84.	2,175	5.58	
1884-85.	2,515	15.63	
1885-86.	2,688	6.88	
1886-87.	2,979	10.82	
1887-88.	3,036	1.91	
1888-89.	3,069	1.09	
1889-90.	3,043	—0.85	
1890-91.	3,205	5.32	
1891-92.	3,818	19.13	
1892-93.	3,537	—0.79	

cation that took place during the period under re-

view. The withdrawal of Government from the direct management of a number of Second Grade Colleges did not, it is true, meet with the full approval of the native community. Though no objection was taken to the principle underlying the action of Government, *viz.*, the development of private effort in the cause of higher education, still it was thought that Government had been a little too precipitate in its action ; but the remarkable progress of aided higher education, both extensively and intensively, clearly shew that the action of Government was not premature. Private activity, in the cause of higher education, was never more conspicuous than during the period under review.

In the development of the three First Grade Colleges, Government during his administration, Mr. Grigg had in view the one Colleges. object of making them model institutions for Colleges under private management. The important changes in the *personnel* of the staff and in the constitution of the Colleges are noted below. Mr. Edmund Thompson's connection with the Presidency College terminated on the 5th March 1884, and Dr. D. Duncan, M. A., was appointed permanent Principal. Mr. Thompson held the office of Principal for 21 years. Dr. Duncan, writing about his predecessor in 1884, said :—" With the exception of about twenty who were educated under Mr. Powell, all the graduates who look to this College as their *alma mater* have been pupils of Mr. Thompson. And thus it comes about that of the twelve hundred graduates of the University scattered throughout the Presidency, Mr. Thompson can probably claim a larger number than any other educationist in Southern India. To say that his name will be held in enduring remembrance by them will appear like a truism to those who knew Mr. Thompson's devotion to his work, and the warm interest which he took in his pupils, not merely while they were mem-

bers of the Colleges, but throughout their after-life. It is in contemplation, I believe, to perpetuate his name in a way which will be most gratifying to himself by connecting it with something that will be either useful or ornamental to the College he loved so well, and in which he spent the best years of his life.* By the College staff generally Mr. Thompson is remembered as a straightforward, considerate chief, who ever set the example of conscientiousness in the discharge of duty. His name will long be cherished with affectionate esteem by his Professors, to each of whom he was known as a warm friend, a judicious adviser, and a genial companion." Mr. Thompson's chair of English was filled by Mr. J. B. Bilderbeck, M. A., who was succeeded in the chair of Mathematics by Mr. P. Ranganatha Mudaliar who had long acted as Professor. In January 1885 an important scheme for the reorganization of the Presidency College was approved by Government. Under this scheme the Secondary departments were abolished with a view to render the departments of the College thoroughly efficient and capable of dealing satisfactorily with the revised Arts curriculum. Three Senior and four Junior Assistant Professorships were provided, a College Council was constituted and sanction was obtained for the creation of a chair of Biology. Dr. Bourne who was appointed to this chair joined in February 1886. In October 1889 a Professorship of Physics was created, and in the same year sanction was obtained for the appointment of a Latin tutor. In August 1882, Mr. G. H. Stuart, M. A., a distinguished Mathematician of the University of Cam-

* A Scholarship, in connection with the Presidency College, known as the Thompson Scholarship, was instituted in 1885 by the pupils and friends of the late Mr. Edmund Thompson, for the purpose of commemorating his long connection with the College.

bridge, assumed charge of the Kumbaconum College. In the following year a lectureship in Science was established, but this was abolished in 1888, with a view to provide for the chair of Physics in the Presidency College. In 1886, the College was reorganized with a view to improve its efficiency, and to place it on a footing to meet the requirements of the revised curricula of the Madras University. The Rajahmundry College underwent a similar reorganization in 1886. Nor was physical education neglected in these Colleges. Provision for systematic instruction in gymnastics was made in all these Colleges during the early part of Mr. Grigg's administration.

Of the 14 non-Government Colleges which were in existence in 1881, twelve were aided and two unaided. Of the 14 only four—the Madras Christian College, the Doveton Protestant College, St. Joseph's College, Negapatam, and the S. P. G. College, Tanjore—were of the First Grade. In 1892, the number of aided Colleges was 25, and that of unaided Colleges 3. Of the twenty-eight Colleges 9* were of the First Grade.

* Christian College, Madras.
Noble College, Masulipatam.
Pachaiyappa's College.
St. Peter's College, Tanjore.
St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly.
S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly.
Caldwell College, Tuticorin.
St. Aloysius College, Mangalore.
Maharajah's College, Vizianagaram.

The number of pupils in private Colleges—aided and unaided—increased from 830 to 2,566. The extent to which Missionary and Native agencies

have participated in Collegiate education will be seen from the following figures. Of the 28 Private Colleges, as many as 18 were maintained by Christian agencies—Protestant or Roman Catholic—and these claimed nearly 2,000 of the 2,566 students. Only two out of the 10 Colleges managed by purely native agencies were of the First Grade—the Pachaiyappa's College and the Maharajah's College, Vizianagram. The

Madras Christian College has continued to hold the foremost place among the aided Colleges. During the period under review its strength advanced from 301 to 801. The various developments it has undergone has enabled it to compete successfully with the foremost Government College. In 1883, the Council of the Christian College decided to establish a separate Professorship in Mathematics, and Mr. W. B. Morren, M. A., took charge of his appointment in December 1883. In July 1884, a monthly periodical of literature, philosophy, science and religion, known as the *Christian College Magazine*, conducted by the Professors of the College, was started. One of the most important steps towards giving stability to the College and securing the hold it had already taken upon the youth of all portions of the Presidency was the institution, in 1885, with aid from Government, of the scheme of district and inter-collegiate Scholarships which is still in force. The Christian College was the first to take steps to provide Hostels for students. Dr. Miller began with one for Brahmans. In 1882, a large dwelling-house was rented for the purpose and placed under the supervision of a competent graduate. After two years' trial, a handsome and comfortable boarding-house was erected by Dr. Miller at his own cost. This has since been known as the "Madras Students' Home." In 1888, another Hostel was opened for Native Christians, called the Fenn Hostel. A chair of Biology was established in December 1885, to which Dr. J. R. Henderson was appointed, and two years later History was added to the list of optional subjects. Next to the Christian College, the largest aided institution is St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, which was transferred from Nega-patam in 1882. This institution has also had its staff strengthened and has been provided with buildings in keeping with its dignity. The S. P. G.

College, Trichinopoly, opened a B. A. class in 1883. In 1887, St. Aloysius College was raised to the standard of a First Grade College, and in 1889 the Pachaiyappa's College followed suit, the staff having been strengthened by two European Assistants. The Maharajah's College, Vizianagram, which is maintained by H. H. the Maharajah of Vizianagram opened the first College class in 1877, and the standard was raised to that of the B. A. degree examination in the year 1883.

A general idea of the development of secondary education, during the period under review, may be gathered from the following facts and figures. In 1881 there were 71 English High Schools containing 4,311 pupils; in 1893 the number of schools rose to 134, and that of pupils to 10,071. The number of Middle schools, (English and Vernacular) advanced from 404 to 460, and attendance in them from 15,645 to 23,506. There has been, on the whole, a steady increase in the number of candidates presented for the Matriculation examination.* The gradual and satisfactory advance in Lower Secondary education may also be inferred from the increase in the number of candidates for the Middle School examinations.† In this Presidency, the policy of Government withdrawing from all direct part in secondary education has been carried out more speedily and more effectually than in other parts of India. In 1881 there were 22 High schools and 79 Middle schools maintained by the Department; in 1892 there were only 4 High schools and 8 Middle schools. That Local and Municipal Boards have been called upon to take a more prominent share in secondary education will be seen from the fact, that whereas there was not

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* *Vide* Appendix Tabular Statement IV.

† *Vide* p. 127.

a single High school under Board management in 1881, there were 24 such schools in 1892, whilst Board Middle schools advanced from 47 to 125. The development in aided secondary education has been equally striking. The 51 aided High schools in 1881 advanced to 77 in 1892 and aided Middle schools (English and Vernacular) rose from 77 to 227. One striking feature of aided secondary education during this period is the success that has attended purely native agencies in the organization and management of secondary schools. There have no doubt been slight disadvantages connected with the withdrawal of Government from all direct part in secondary education, still against these disadvantages ought to be set the great gain that results from the people of the country taking upon themselves the responsibility of promoting secondary education. With regard to the complaint that the policy of Government has resulted in the deterioration of secondary schools, Mr. Grigg wrote as follows in 1887 :—"I am not prepared to admit that the transfer has resulted in the deterioration of secondary schools, although it is true that a large number of public schools under private management and even some Municipal and Board institutions are not as efficiently conducted as departmental institutions are. At the same time it is an undoubted fact that within the last four years a decided improvement is noticeable in non-departmental secondary schools, some of them now competing favourably with the best departmental institutions ; and not only is this the case as regards instruction, but, in these schools and in other public secondary schools, in organization, in the employment of qualified teachers, in the provision of better accommodation, in the introduction of drill, gymnastic instruction, and in other ways, there has been improvement notwithstanding the reduction of Government grants. This

improvement I attribute partly to the growing demand for secondary education, partly to the raising of school fees, partly to more thorough inspection, but mainly to the system of recognition which operates in regard to Municipal and Board schools as well as to those under private management. The efforts which Managers of schools make to secure this privilege often surprise me, as they appear to be out of all proportion to the benefit as regards fees which recognition secures." During Col. Macdonald's time Comparative Examinations of the Upper and Lower Fourth classes were instituted, and another the Comparative Examination of the Third class was later on added by Mr. Grigg. These examinations were conducted by departmental officers and were meant to regulate promotions in public schools, but they were discontinued after a few years' trial as it was found that they were beginning to have an injurious effect on education. During the early part of his administration, Mr. Grigg found that the study of the Vernaculars did not receive the attention it should in Middle schools, and he developed the Vernacular part of the Middle School examination by assigning an important place to the vernaculars in it and more especially to reciprocal translation. But as Mr. Grigg has rightly observed : — "The defective and unsatisfactory character of much of the literature of the several vernaculars of this Presidency is perhaps the greatest obstacle to their intelligent and careful study, and it thus happens that able and sympathetic educationists are constrained to draw away the attention of their pupils from a study which, except for linguistic purposes, is mostly barren and unprofitable. Paradoxical though the statement be, there is little question that there can be no hearty and earnest study of the vernaculars of Southern India until the literature of each is enriched by standard writings on the subjects

which are now engrossing the thoughts of the educated youth. The best of them are in search of knowledge for its own sake, and not merely because of the loaves and fishes to which it leads; and will not therefore devote themselves to the study of a literature which yields little but husks of the Sanskrit literature from which it has sprung."

Upper Secondary Examination.

As early as in 1884 the Government of India drew the attention of the local Government to the desirability of giving effect to the following recommendation of the Education Commission regarding Upper Secondary Education* :—"That in the upper classes of High schools there be two divisions, one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits." Acting on this recommendation, Mr. Grigg addressed the Government on the subject in July 1887, proposing the establishment of a public examination which would give effect to the wishes of the Government of India by dividing general education, after the Middle School examination, into two branches, according to the system prevailing in the public schools of England, one branch having for its end the preparation of students for the University, the other the preparation of students for the commercial and industrial walks of life. In proposing this new public examination, which was originally termed the High School examination, Mr. Grigg had three objects in view :—(1) to complete the bifurcation of studies, recommended by the Education Commission; (2) to substitute for the Matriculation examination of the University and the Handwriting test, a fresh Entrance examination for the public service, which, without ousting the Middle

* Paragraph 21. Government of India Notification 10—309, dated 23rd October 1884.

School examination, would guarantee a higher and, when required, a more technical qualification; (3) to extend and strengthen the control of Government over Upper Secondary education. In the rough scheme presented by Mr. Grigg, his views are stated as follows:—

Firstly, as regards the compulsory portion of the examination—

- (a) that the test in each language shall be a real test in the power to speak, read and write the language, and to compose in it with the ease and correctness, which may fairly be demanded of a responsible and well-paid clerk;
- (b) that such test cannot be properly applied without a colloquial or *vivâ voce* examination (the Bombay University has a *vivâ voce* examination for matriculates);
- (c) that the test in mathematics shall comprise not only a good knowledge of the commercial chapters of arithmetic but also such a knowledge of elementary geometry, mensuration, and elementary plan-drawing as may fairly be demanded of clerks, the great majority of whom will, in the ordinary course of their duties, find such knowledge, in greater or less degree, a most valuable aid to efficient work.
- (d) that the test in history and geography shall have general reference to the British Empire, its commerce and its natural resources, and special reference to India, its commerce and its natural resources.

Secondly, as regards the optional portion of the examination—

- (a) that students seeking admission to certain great branches of the service of the State should qualify in at least three of the branches of technical knowledge which bear specially upon the work of these departments of the public service.
- (b) that these optional branches should be those included, or to be included, in the tests of the Preliminary Higher examination, and that there shall be no separate examination in the branches for candidates for this new examination;

- (c) that encouragement shall be afforded to candidates who have passed the Preliminary Higher examination in a branch in which there is an advanced examination to proceed to that examination.

Government in its Order, No. 458, Educational, dated 24th August 1887, approved of the general scheme and authorised the Director to proceed with its elaboration with the aid of a committee* The committee submitted an elaborate report in July 1888. The scheme as elaborated by the committee was tentatively approved by Government in its Order No. 401, dated 11th July 1888. The opposition to the scheme, however, from representatives of aided education and others was considerable. Objections were taken to the scheme, both in regard to its curriculum and in regard to its position as a test for the public service. It was pointed out that while the new examination professed to be the final test of secondary education, it was in fact designed solely or mainly with reference to the requirements of the public service and as such subordinated education to the needs of the service, and included various subjects which should be provided for by special tests. The *vivâ voce* portion of the examination was objected to as rendering the test so uncertain as to be useless and unsatisfactory to school managers and examiners. A great deal was also said as to the injurious effect which the institution of this examination would have on the University. In order to meet these and other objections, Government made some important modifications in the scheme. The designation of the examination was changed from "High School Examination" to "Upper Secondary Examination," and, to safeguard the inter-

* Mr. H. B. Grigg, *President*. *Members* :—Mr. J. Grose, Dr. John Bradshaw, Mr. G. H. Stuart, Rev. C. Cooper, Rev. Dr. Jean, Mr. J. Adam, with Mr. E. H. Elliot as Secretary.

ests of the University, Government resolved that the F. A. examination should also qualify for admission to the higher grades of the public service when supplemented by a pass in the translation test of the Upper Secondary examination, while the Matriculation examination was to continue to qualify for Government service, but only for appointments carrying salaries of less than Rs. 15 per mensem, and also for service under local and Municipal bodies in such grades as might be decided by Government. Government also decided to abolish the Middle School examination and to substitute in its place the Lower Secondary examination which was to be conducted *vivâ voce* by local examining committees. The Upper Secondary examination scheme, as first revised by Government, came into operation in 1889. The scheme, however, has not proved a success. The first examination was held in 1890, and since then only five have qualified for the test completely. The scheme has been revised more than once. As it stands at present, the *vivâ voce* portion of the examination has been abolished, the number of optional subjects has been reduced to two, candidates being allowed to choose any two of the subjects included in the Government Technical examination, Intermediate grade, while the concession allowing candidates to pass the compulsory portion of the examination piecemeal has been withdrawn. These changes were carried out in accordance with some of the recommendations made by Dr. Duncan in 1893. The value of the Upper Secondary examination, however, as a test for the public service has in no way been altered, while the Matriculation examination which was removed from the list of service tests on the institution of the Upper Secondary examination, has been restored to its place and is now on a footing of equality with the Upper Secondary examination as regards the public service. The scheme of the

Lower Secondary examination, too, has had to be revised, as the method of conducting the examination *vivâ voce* by means of committees was not found to work satisfactorily. It is now conducted like the old Middle School examination but is of an inferior standard, while, unlike the Middle School examination, it qualifies only for inferior service under Government and is of no higher value in this respect than the Primary examination. The revised scheme of the Lower Secondary examination was sanctioned in G. O. No. 341, Edl., of the 2nd May 1893.

Primary Education.

One of the most remarkable features of the history of Primary education in the Madras Presidency is the large support which it has received from Local and Municipal Boards and from private agencies. In the development of this branch of education the Government can be said to have had only an indirect share. It is needless to point out that the great stimulus given to private enterprise with regard to Primary education is almost entirely due to the remarkable success with which the system of Grants-in-aid has been worked. In one of their Resolutions their sense of the great importance of Primary education is recorded as follows by the Education Commission :—"That while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension and improvement to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed on a still larger measure than hitherto." That this recommendation has been given effect to in the most satisfactory manner possible will be seen from the statistical progress of Primary education. On the 31st March 1881, there were 11,793 Primary schools for boys

(English and Vernacular) with an attendance of 283,216 pupils; on the same date in 1893 there were 19,097 public Primary schools (English and Vernacular) with an attendance of 550,446 pupils. The larger proportionate increase in the number of pupils than in the number of schools is noteworthy as indicating greater consolidation and concentration in Primary institutions, one of the surest signs of internal progress. The table in the margin shews the distribution of Primary schools according to the agencies

Primary Schools.

Agencies by which maintained.	1881.	1893.
Government ..	158*	145
Board ...	1,030*	3,208
Aided ...	5,508	9,482
Unaided ...	5,097	6,262

by which they were maintained. Local and Municipal Boards have been induced to take no insignificant part in the direct management of Primary schools, and private efforts have also developed considerably. Writing in 1889, Mr. Grigg said:—"The

steady increase in the number of Board schools is a gratifying feature. The position which Government occupied with relation to Secondary education some ten years back is now occupied by Local Boards with relation to Primary education. Under present conditions the progress of Primary education will depend chiefly upon the part directly taken by Local Boards in the establishment and efficient management of Primary schools. The generally evanescent character of Results schools under purely native management is well-known. The establishment of Board schools is indispensable, especially in rural parts, and I am accordingly recommending the establishment of new schools chiefly on the salary results system in educationally backward districts." Since

* These figures are only approximately correct.

1889, a very large number of Board salary results schools have been established in various parts of the Presidency. The Primary schools maintained by Government were chiefly confined to the Agency tracts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godaveri. Another significant test of the progress of Primary education was the very large increase in the number of schools that presented and passed pupils for the different standards. The policy of the department has been to improve the existing indigenous schools and to aid them under the results system so soon as the managers conformed to the rules of the Grant-in-aid Code. The number of indigenous schools not under departmental supervision has thus been diminishing year by year. Between the years 1881 and 1886, 4,826 indigenous schools with 87,258 pupils were brought under the supervision of the department. The work of bringing indigenous schools under departmental management belongs to the agency of Inspecting Schoolmasters, whose chief duty consists in paying periodical visits to indigenous schools, in instructing the Masters how to keep proper registers, in helping them to adopt and follow the Code curriculum, and in numerous other ways preparing their schools for being brought under inspection. "The transition of an indigenous private school," wrote Dr. Duncan in 1890, while acting as Director of Public Instruction, "to the status of an unaided school which is the first change it undergoes, is not so easy as might be supposed. Frequent visits must be made by the Inspecting Schoolmaster before he succeeds in prevailing upon the teacher to make the least movement towards the recognition of his school. Not only the village teachers, but the villagers themselves, have to be made to understand the advantages to be derived from placing their schools under Departmental control, with the prospect of ultimately receiving aid from pub-

lic funds. The provisions of chapter III of the Grant-in-aid Code and the curriculum to be followed have to be carefully explained. In short, the teacher being, as a rule, a man of very low attainments, he has himself to be taught several of the most elementary truths connected with his work. The village people being as a class entirely uneducated, they are frequently hostile to innovations which they cannot see to be improvements. If not actively hostile they are apathetic. It is not enough that the Inspecting Schoolmaster makes a convert of the teacher, the villagers must also be carried along with him, since, without their co-operation, the teacher is helpless. Entirely depending on them for maintenance, the teacher must work in accordance with the methods that approve themselves to his employers, and he will naturally think twice before giving up the comparative certainty of remuneration in kind from the parents of his pupils for the somewhat remote chance of a results grant from public funds. But the difficulties are not at an end when once an indigenous school is brought under inspection. Many of the initial difficulties still remain and fresh ones arise. It may be that the villagers do not approve of their children being taught to read printed books to the neglect of *cadjans*. If so, nothing is more likely to dry up the fountains of their liberality in the matter of remuneration than this breach with time-honoured custom. They begin to pay the school-fee meagrely and irregularly, and eventually withhold payment altogether. The teacher now finds himself in an unenviable position. He has broken with the old ways too far to make it expedient to go back, while he has not gone far enough on the new path to make his future course at all re-assuring. Sometimes he temporizes, teaching from printed books on the new methods in order to satisfy the inspecting officers and

from cadjans on the indigenous methods with a view to keep favour with his constituents. At this stage, as in the previous and subsequent stages of his development from the condition of indigenous to that of a public Schoolmaster, the village teacher stands in the utmost need of all the help which the trained intelligence, the prudent counsel and the sympathetic encouragement of inspecting officers can afford him." One of the greatest obstacles to the progress of Primary education has been the absence of qualified teachers. This defect is however being remedied to some extent by the newly established Government Training schools and Sessional schools. With a view to give effect to the recommendation of the Education Commission in para. 197 of the report, Government called on the Director to consider the desirability of instituting an elementary examination which should be declared a preliminary to any entrance into Government service. Mr. Grigg accordingly submitted an outline of such an examination in July 1887 which met with the general approval of Government. In instituting this examination Government announced its object to be "to promote Primary education by requiring that every employè of Government shall be able to read and write and shall know something of the commonest branches of knowledge." The examination was declared a compulsory test for admission to the Public Service in respect of all appointments under Rs. 15 per mensem which are classed as "superior," and in respect of all appointments classed as "inferior," except those which are exclusively menial in their character. The examination, which was finally sanctioned in G. O. No. 17 of the 15th January 1889, has had a most salutary effect on Primary education. The subjects of the examination are almost identical with those of the Fourth Standard test and are (1) Compulsory, (i.) Reading, Recitation and Grammar, (ii.) Writing

and Spelling, and (iii.) Arithmetic, (2) Optional any two of the following subjects :—Elementary science, second language, Geography, Drawing, Hygiene, History of India, Agriculture, Mensuration, Needle-work. One of the beneficial effects that has resulted from the institution of the Primary school examination is the larger proportion of pupils that have continued up to the Fourth Standard. The first examination was held in December 1889, and January and February 1890. The total number presented was 6,480, out of whom 4,346 passed. Of the 6,480 candidates, 5,346 were pupils and 507 teachers. In 1892-93, the number examined was 26,993, and the number passed in one or more subjects was 19,925. Of the 26,993 candidates, 22,413 were pupils, 1,608 teachers, and 2,972 others. The total number of pupils (boys and girls) in the Upper Primary stage increased from 27,751 in 1889 to 39,896 in 1893. The Primary school examination has also had the effect of raising up a more efficient and sympathetic class of village officials to whom the friends of education can look for co-operation and substantial assistance.

The progress of female education during the period under review, though confined chiefly to the primary stage, has been very considerable. The total number of girls under instruction advanced from 32,341 in 1881 to 104,988 in 1893. The appointment of a special inspecting agency has greatly helped to improve the management and organization of girls' schools. The appointment of Mrs. Brander as Inspectress of Girls' Schools in 1881 resulted in such a marked development of female education in the districts under her supervision that Government determined to place girls' schools throughout the Presidency under female inspecting agents. When the inspecting agency was re-organized in 1888, the appointment of a second Inspect-

Female Education.

ress of Girls' Schools was created, and Miss Carr, who was in charge of the Presidency Training School for Mistresses, was made the Inspectress of Girls' Schools in the Southern and Western circles, with Coimbatore as her head-quarters, whilst Mrs. Brander was placed in charge of the Northern and Central circles, with Madras as her head-quarters. The State system of education as regards control and inspection in India has been always framed with a view more to the requirements of boys than of girls, and this has proved a serious difficulty in the way of female education. The Madras Presidency may, therefore, well claim the credit of being the first to modify the system to suit the requirements of the education of girls. A few statistics will shew the extent of the progress of female education in its various stages. In 1881 there were only 8 High schools and 32 Middle schools for girls, containing 38 and 374 pupils respectively; in 1893 there were 27 High schools for girls with 278 pupils and 196 Middle schools with 2,634 pupils. Primary schools during this period advanced from 500 to 808 and pupils in them from 21,193 to 48,701. That there has been considerable internal improvement in girls' schools is evident. The average attainment of teachers employed in girls' schools has improved, and also the proportion of female teachers. The various Training schools for Mistresses have been sending out an increasingly larger number of professionally qualified teachers year after year. The course of instruction has become more diversified. Greater attention has been paid to Needle-work, Object lessons, and the Kindergarten method of instruction, whilst a vernacular literature suited for girls and women is slowly springing up. Secondary education is, however, confined almost entirely to the Eurasian and Native Christian communities. Up to 1893, 183 women had passed the Matriculation examination since the establish-

ment of the University, 150 of them being Europeans or Eurasians, and 27 Native Christians. Of the remaining, only one was a Brahmin, one a Muhammadan, and four were Parsis. In stimulating Secondary education of girls, the Middle School Examination and the Higher Examination for Women have had considerable influence. The latter examination was however abolished in 1892, as Government thought that the Matriculation or the Upper Secondary examination should be the leaving examination of the Upper Secondary stage for girls as well. There is not even the very beginnings of higher female education so far as the Hindu community is concerned. Dr. Duncan while Acting Director of Public Instruction in 1890, said : "The demand for Upper Secondary education hardly exists among Hindus and Muhammadans. Until the people themselves show more signs of awakening to a sense of the true interests of their women, it is little that Missionary or philanthropic enterprise and Government effort can do. Any general extension of the higher education of women throughout the Presidency is at present out of the question. The most that can be done by Government is to wait and watch for the smallest indications of a desire for this higher education here and there throughout the country, and where it appears, to make the most of it either by opening High schools for native women under the direct control of Government, or by giving the most liberal help and sympathetic encouragement to those who maintain such schools, whether they be private individuals or Missionary societies, or secular associations. The system of child-marriage has necessitated the seclusion of girls at an age when their education has scarcely begun. One way of meeting this difficulty is by extending Zenana or Home education. A special provision was introduced into the Grant-in-aid Code for aiding private agencies that undertake

Zenana education, and agencies such as the National Indian Association, the Free Church Mission, the Church of England Zenana Mission have availed themselves of this privilege. Speaking of Zenana agencies Mr. Grigg wrote :—"This method of extending education among women is no doubt at present proportionately very expensive, but I look forward somewhat confidently to the rapid extension of the system, which will necessarily result in an increased average strength in the classes. The system is to my mind in itself admirably suited to the conditions and circumstances of the country, and calculated to be of immense help to the progress of Indian women." Dr. Duncan's views on the subject, however, were slightly different. This is what he said in his Report on Public Instruction for the year 1889-90:—

"The importance of Zenana or Home education classes has been dwelt upon in previous reports. It is only too true that much of the money spent on female education is practically thrown away in consequence of the early age at which girls are withdrawn from school. The little learning acquired in the elementary standards becomes less when the girl is by social custom withdrawn from school at about the age of ten, and by the time womanhood is fully entered upon only the merest vestiges of it remain. A means of carrying on the work of the school after the girl has retired with the comparative seclusion of domestic life is, therefore, needed, as much for the conservation of what has been learnt, as for the sake of adding to it. The best way of securing both these ends would, of course, be such a change in the social customs of the people as would allow of girls remaining at the ordinary school several years longer. Not only would this be the best means, but native society will, I am fully convinced, discover sooner or later that it is the only way in which education can ever make an impression on the female portion of the community at all proportionate to the mark it has made on the other sex. The sooner the discovery is made and acted on the better. For no one, however sanguine he may be, can maintain that Zenana or Home education classes, or any practical extension of this agency, can

effectually cope with the wide-spread ignorance and lack of culture that prevail. At best these Home education classes are temporary make-shifts, not permanent parts of the educational machinery which is transforming Hindu and Muhammadan society. I should like to see this aspect of the matter brought constantly and prominently forward on every occasion on which the general interests of female education are being discussed in public. Hindu and Muhammadan parents must be brought to face the vital issues that are bound up with this question. If Native society, in full view of all the circumstances, deliberately resolves to allow itself to fall behind in the march of progress, there is not another word to be said. But if it desires to take its place among the foremost people of the earth—to be a progressive instead of a stagnating or decaying society—it must gird up its loins and resolve—at whatever cost—to emancipate its women from the thralldom of ignorance. A society composed of educated men and uneducated women can never be a progressive society. Home education classes are good as far as they go, and if parents can afford and are willing to pay for the luxury of educating their girls at home, it is right that they should have an opportunity of danger. But it is merely to play with a momentous question for the leaders of Native society to assume that, in patronizing these classes, they are doing a great deal to remove one of the greatest blots on their social system. It must be apparent to all of them that practicable extension of the Home education system cannot have more than an infinitesimal effect in removing the mass of illiteracy and ignorance which is stifling the very life of society. I am far from thinking that it would be expedient entirely to withdraw departmental aid from this educational agency. But the conviction has for sometime been growing in my mind that unless the utmost caution is taken, increased facilities for opening these classes and liberal Grants-in-aid of them may have an effect the very opposite of that intended—may retard the general spread, of female education while advancing it slightly within a very limited sphere. Only those girls who have reached the age whom rigid custom ordains that they shall not any longer attend school should be educated to the home classes. A little judicious pressure brought to bear on parents who are at all desirous to see their daughters educated would here and there have the effect of inducing them to break through the barriers of custom and keep their girls at school some

years longer. If parents find that the educational authorities are just as ready to arrange for their girls being educated at home by a semi-private governess as they are to provide for having them taught in a school, they will doubtless choose the former. It is expedient and right that this department, in administering the expenditure of public funds, should make concessions to the customs of the people; but it is to be expected that the more enlightened members of the community will set the example of a readiness to meet the department half way, and to remove little by little the barriers which custom has set up in the path of female education. The education of one's children involves a sacrifice—a sacrifice of money, it may be of customary opinions, of cherished prejudices, of time-honoured sentiments. If parents are really desirous to educate their daughters, they will be prepared to make the necessary sacrifices. If they are indifferent in the matter, I am not very sanguine as to the amount of good that will be done by Home education classes."

Private native agencies, as has been pointed out, have not come forward to any appreciable extent to take upon themselves the responsibilities of starting schools, but Mission agencies have done a great deal for female education, the majority of aided schools being under their supervision. As regards Local Boards and Municipalities the Education Commission was of opinion that it was premature for them to undertake the control of girls' schools on the ground that native public opinion had not yet decided either as to the expediency of school-life for girls or as to the claims of female education on Local and Municipal Funds. No pressure therefore has been brought to bear upon Local and Municipal Boards to undertake the management of girls' schools, but every opportunity has been taken to open Government schools in backward parts of the Presidency. Out of a total of 803 Primary schools for girls in 1893; 111 were Government schools, 14 were managed by Local or Municipal Boards, 501 were aided and these were chiefly institutions maintained by Missions, and 182 were unaided. The Department

has, as much as possible, encouraged the development of schools intended entirely for girls to the exclusion of mixed schools, but Dr. Duncan is of opinion that mixed schools are not so ill-suited to India as is sometimes supposed. His views on this subject are of special interest :—

“The question of educating boys and girls side by side is one on which differences of opinion exist in Europe and America. Arguments in favour of mixed schools, which are sound when applied to the conditions of life in the West, will many of them fail if applied to the social conditions of India. But, making due allowance for all this, I cannot see any valid objection to little boys and little girls working side by side in the elementary standards, if their parents are satisfied with such an arrangement. It must not be forgotten that the question of allowing grown-up native boys and girls to study together is of little practical moment at the present day, when girls are withdrawn from school at so early an age. In discouraging mixed schools for little boys and girls it appears to me that we are fostering a sentiment with regard to the seclusion of women, which, in the wider domain of social life, we condemn. If parents express a decided wish to have their girls educated in a separate school, their wish should be respected and if possible given effect to. But if they are quite satisfied with the mixed school arrangement, it does seem to me utterly uncalled for to discourage them from sending their little girls to a mixed school, and thus to create an artificial sentiment in favor of the separation of the sexes even in the elementary schools. With the paramount importance of spreading primary instruction ever pressing itself upon our attention, the mixed school for the Primary standards instead of being discouraged should be welcomed whenever and wherever the people are satisfied with it. Many a small village or town is able to support a fairly large school attended by both boys and girls but would not be able to maintain two schools—one for boys and one for girls,

The new Grant-in-aid Code referred to in Sec. III,* Changes in which was only partially introduced on the 1st April the Grant-in-aid Code. 1880, should have been brought into full force after

* *Vide* page 98.

31st March 1882; but as the interval of two years was considered insufficient, and as several schools would have been seriously embarrassed by any further reduction of grants, the relaxations originally sanctioned were, on the recommendation of Mr. Grigg, extended for another year. In 1882-83 several important additions were made to the Grant-in-aid Code. Previous to that year, under the orders of Government, vaccination was demanded of male pupils in Government schools only, since then the demand was extended to aided schools to a considerable extent. The rules sanctioned by Government and incorporated in the Code were as follows:—

“In the case of schools for boys and of schools for European, Eurasian, and Native Christian girls, the manager must further declare that he will not admit any child as a pupil, who is not protected from small-pox by vaccination or otherwise. No exception will be allowed to this condition without the express sanction of Government.”

“An application must be accompanied by a certificate that the Master or Mistress concerned has been vaccinated, or is otherwise protected from small-pox. No grant may, without express sanction of Government, be granted to a teacher who is not protected.”

“No certificate may be granted to a Master or Mistress who is not certified to be protected from small-pox.”

“No male pupil, unprotected from small-pox, is eligible for a grant payable from Local, Municipal or Provincial Funds in a Circle or Municipality, the Board of which has declared protection from small-pox a condition of aid.”

In order to encourage the home education of Hindu and Muhammadan females, the following rule was sanctioned as a tentative measure:—

“Grants-in-aid of the salaries of qualified female teachers of Hindu and Muhammadan girls pursuing their studies in private houses may be sanctioned by the Director of Public Instruction according to the scale laid down in rule 43, provided (1) that the teacher is employed by the manager of a girls' school, or by a regularly constituted committee,

society or association, (2) that the current accounts, the list of establishment, each household class, together with the time-table, the scheme of studies, and register of attendance, so far as secular instruction is concerned, are subject to Government inspection; (3) that the instruction given does not fall below that prescribed for the 4th Standard; (4) that each pupil receives instruction according to the standard in which she may be studying, in one or more languages, in Arithmetic and in History and Geography; (5) that such monthly fees as may be from time to time prescribed are levied; (6) that the total number of pupils under instruction shall not be less than 15 and not less than 3 in any one household; (7) that the pupils under instruction be not less than 12 or more than 25 years of age; (8) that the teacher devote to each household class not less than 4 hours, and in the aggregate to all the classes not less than 20 hours weekly."

The National Indian Association was the first to avail itself of the rule. It having frequently been brought to notice that schools opened in villages, wholly agricultural or industrial, proved to be ephemeral in consequence of the pupils being drawn away to labour during the day, the departmental officers were asked to encourage the opening of Night schools and Evening classes and the following rule was approved by Government :—

"In the case of Night schools or classes, an attendance of 2 hours will be accepted, but no school or class shall be treated as a Night school or class which has not been especially recognized as such by the Director of Public Instruction after duly considering the needs of the locality or community concerned."

The following amended rule, relating to period of examination for results grant was also sanctioned by Government :—

"A school shall be examined for a results grant once a year, as far as practicable, at intervals of twelve months; the grant being for the work of a school year, which, as a rule, begins to run from the date from which a school is recommended by the Inspector for admission to examination under Article 51, or, in the case of a school already on the list, from the date of

the last annual examination for grant. The annual grant is the aggregate sum of individual grants passed to pupils by the examining officer according to the scale fixed in Article 76 for the school year, but if the examination be held after the lapse of a period greater or less than a year then the total grant shall, except when otherwise ordered by the Director, be increased or diminished by one-twelfth for each month more or less than a year."

The following was the amended rule regarding period of study in results schools :—

"Pupils, who have been actually studying for a standard throughout the six working months preceding the inspection shall be eligible for examination under that standard. Pupils are not eligible for examinations under any other standard than that for which they have thus been studying."

Previous to 1st April 1882, the mofussil Municipalities had to pay results grants earned by boys for the first three standards only. On Mr. Grigg's recommendation, which was in accordance with the views of the local self-government committee, the results grants payable for the Fourth standard on account of boys, in addition to all salary grants for Primary schools or departments of schools, were transferred for payment by Municipalities with financial effect from 1st April 1882. The transfer was a partial set off to the relief which had been afforded to Municipal funds by the discontinuance of the Police contribution. Mr. Grigg also advised the Government, in view of the development of needle-work as a decorative industry, to introduce the ornamental branches of the art into the higher standards, care being taken that plain needle-work, even in these standards, should not be sacrificed to ornamental, by requiring a pupil to pass for plain before a grant could be earned for ornamental. This proposal which had the approval of Mrs. Brander was sanctioned by Government. In 1883-84 also several important changes were intro-

duced which are noted under the following headings:—

(1.) *Appointments of local agents.*—Difficulties having arisen in consequence of the appointment of the Headmasters of schools under the control of trustees and associations as Managers for the transaction of business with the department without any limitation in their powers, rule 3 of the Grant-in-aid Code was so far amended as to give such trustees or associations power to “appoint the Headmaster of the school, or other person, their local agent, to transact the current business of the school on their behalf with the Education Department.”

(2.) *Time to be spent in secular teaching.*—The Code, as first promulgated, required the head of a college or school to spend three or four hours respectively in secular teaching. The head of a large institution has to supervise the instruction given by his subordinates and to attend to general management, and this was not practicable so long as he was required to devote as many as three or four hours to actual teaching. Heads of colleges and schools were accordingly permitted to spend in secular teaching “such time, not being less than one hour daily, as may seem necessary for the well-being of the school.”

(3.) *Period of furlough.*—Section 12 of the Code empowered the department to recognize six months’ leave in case of Masters of Aided schools. To provide more liberally in regard to leave in the case of Masters, who have to proceed to Europe, the period was extended to twelve months, if taken in Europe after four years’ continuous service in the country.

(4.) *Relaxation in favor of old teachers.*—The concessions granted on behalf of old teachers by the Notification of the 16th February 1880 and extended by G. O. No. 57 of the 17th April 1882, expired on the 31st March 1883. As it was considered a real hardship to reduce the grants of teachers of some standing and experience, or to require such men to proceed to the normal schools for training, a relaxation was sanctioned to the effect that Masters and Mistresses, whose continuous service as teachers was not less than six years on the 31st March 1883, were to be considered eligible for the favorable rates sanctioned in Government Notification, dated 16th February 1880, so long as they continue to perform efficiently the duties of their calling.

(5.) *Certificates granted by public educational bodies.*—Article 25 of the Grant-in-aid Code recognized the certificates granted by the Committees of the Council on Education in Great Britain and the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland. As this measure led to the treatment of teachers holding certificates from other educational bodies as uncertificated for the purposes of State aid, the article was amended so as to include teachers holding certificates granted by any "public educational body recognized by Government."

(6.) *Honoraria to Hindu and Muhamadan Mistresses.*—Elementary girls' schools maintained by Mission Societies have, as a rule, worked fairly successfully, and this happy result was no doubt, to a great extent, due to the practice of marrying young mistresses to schoolmasters and entrusting the girls' branch of a village school to the wife under the general supervision of the husband. Some inducement was considered necessary to bring about a similar state of things as regards secular teachers. The following addition was accordingly made to Article 22 of the Grant-in-aid Code :—

"Honoraria, amounting to Rs. 60, Rs. 120 and Rs. 240, will be given to the wife or widow of Hindu and Muhamadan masters on passing for an ordinary certificates of the third, second or first grade, respectively, provided the husband or guardian is a teacher by profession, and the wife or widow, in the case of the third grade, has been continuously engaged in school-teaching for one year, and in the case of the second and first grades for two years."

(7.) *Honoraria for passing in vernaculars.*—With a view to encourage Mistresses and Normal Students to qualify in a second or third language, it was considered expedient to grant honoraria under certain restrictions, and the following addition was sanctioned to rule 46 of the Code :—

"The Director of Public Instruction may grant an honorarium, equal to two month's salary, to a Mistress who qualifies in a second or third language of the test of the grade in which she holds a normal certificate, provided such language or languages be South Indian vernaculars and not the vernacular of the Mistress. Grants at half the above rates may be given to a Mistress holding an ordinary certificate, who has been employed as a teacher for two years preceding the examination. Grants equal to three months' Scholarship

will be given to a Female Normal student passing in a second language in the test for which she appears."

(8.) *Grants to gymnastic and drill instructors.*—As the provisions of the Code contemplated aid to calisthenic teachers in gymnasia who may or may not be attached to schools, the following addition was made to Article 39 of the Code:—

"A half-salary grant will be given to a fully qualified teacher of gymnastics, and a one-third grant to a drill-master or mistress who possesses also an elementary knowledge of gymnastics."

(9.) *Capitation grants to conductresses.*—No aid could be given under the Code for servants of any kind. This prevented managers of many girls' schools from employing conductresses in their schools. The employment of this agency being found essential for the well-being of girls' schools, it was resolved to give aid on account of this class of school servants; and in order to induce them to do their best to secure regular attendance, their remuneration has been made to depend on the attendance. The following addition was made to Article 46:—

"A monthly grant of one anna will be given in aid of the salaries of conductresses employed in girls' schools for each girl not residing on the school premises, who is certified by the Manager to have made fifteen full daily attendances in the month. During authorized vacations grant may be drawn according to the average grant of the two preceding months."

(10.) *Requisition of a minimum attendance in results schools.*—To check the multiplication of petty results schools and to prevent the abuse of a person being able practically to constitute his own children with their private tutor a school and to obtain grant, the requisition of a minimum limit as regards attendance was considered absolutely necessary, and the following clause was added to Article 50:—

"No school will be included in this statement which has not, if a school for boys, an average daily attendance during the three months preceding the date of application of 8 pupils; if a school for girls of 4 pupils. In schools in Municipalities, the average attendance must not be less than 16 and 8 respectively."

(11.) *Conditions of aid under the results system.*—The increasing number of results schools rendered it necessary

that a careful selection should be made among the competing schools. In order to guide the sanctioning authorities in the matter of the selection, and also to inform the Managers of the directions in which they should improve their schools, and to guard also against the sudden withdrawal of aid, rule 58 of the Code was amended as follows:—

“Amongst schools otherwise equally eligible a preference will be given to those—

- (a) in which school fees are levied and trustworthy returns of such fees are submitted;
- (b) which are provided with a fairly sufficient teaching staff;
- (c) which have fair accommodation and are otherwise well-organized;
- (d) which have been continuously maintained;
- (e) in which certificated teachers are employed.

In the case of schools whose maintenance is guaranteed for a given time, aid shall not be wholly withdrawn without due and sufficient notice, which shall not be less than six months.”

(12.) *Extra grants for Muhammadans.*—The rate of grant for Muhammadans was raised by 25 per cent. in consideration of the late age at which they begin their secular instruction and their comparatively slow progress therein.

(13.) *Extra grants to children of backward races.*—The necessity for encouraging private effort in the instruction of children of backward races, whether living within or without the special localities to which the tribes belong, engaged the attention of the department during the year, and the following addition was sanctioned to rule 77 of the Code. Such special encouragement was also recommended by the Education Commission.

Rule 77—(a.) Grants shall be paid at double rates to Managers of schools in the Agency tracts of the Northern Circars, and at rates 50 per cent. higher than those named in the above scale to Managers of schools in the Kollegal and Satyamangalam (above the ghats) Taluks of the Coimbatore District, in the Nilgiri District, and in the Wynaad Taluk of the Malabar District.

(b) Grants may also be paid at excess rates of 50 per cent. on account of pupils passing in schools wherever situated and belonging to the following races :—

Khonds.	Irulas.	Malsurs.
Savaras.	Kurambas.	Kaders.
Badagas.	Koravas.	Malayalis.
Todas.	Kotas.	

or to any other tribe if sanctioned by Government.

Kurumbas in the Anantapur District have been lately added to the list of special tribes.

(14.) *Re-adjustment of grants for the Seventh Standard.*—The maximum grant for the Seventh Standard was originally fixed at Rs. 25. To make the grants proportionate to the results, the grants for first, second and third classes in the standard, which is tested by the Middle School Examination, were fixed at Rs. 30, Rs. 20 and Rs. 10 respectively.

(15.) *Grants to teachers receiving no fixed stipends.*—The provisions of Article 14 of the Code and the declaration attached to the Grant-in-aid bills did not strictly apply to teachers receiving no fixed stipends, to wit. members of religious societies who are precluded from receiving fixed salaries by the rules of the societies to which they belong. To remedy this defect the following addition was made to the Article in question :—

“In the case of members of religious societies, who receive no fixed remuneration for their services as teachers, a declaration by the managers that such teachers have been duly employed in accordance with the terms of the order sanctioning grants will suffice.”

The following addition was made to the Declaration :—

“I further certify that in accordance with the provision of Article 14 of the Grant-in-aid Code, the teachers (here enter names) who are precluded by the rules of the society to which they belong from receiving fixed salaries, have been duly employed in this institution in accordance with the terms of the order sanctioning grants on their behalf.

(16.) *Transfer of charges on account of middle education of boys to Municipal Boards.*—In G. O. No. 1,768, Government were pleased to sanction on the recommendation of the Local Self-Government Committee, the transfer of charges on account of middle education of boys in Municipalities to the

Municipal Boards concerned, and the following changes were made in the Code :—

RULE 6.—For the words “in the Primary schools or classes of schools for boys,” the words “in the Middle and Primary schools or classes of schools for boys in the Mofussil Municipalities” to be substituted.

RULE 9.—For the words “to be employed in Primary classes” the words “to be employed in Middle and Primary schools or classes in the Mofussil Municipalities” to be substituted.

RULE 10.—For the words “in the case of Primary schools and classes” the words “in the case of Middle and Primary schools and classes in the Mofussil Municipalities” to be substituted.

RULE 11.—For the words “all grants to teachers in Primary schools or classes” the words “all grants to teachers in Middle and Primary schools or classes in the Mofussil Municipalities” to be substituted.

RULE 82.—For the first two sentences were substituted “all results grants earned by boys in the Mofussil Municipalities shall be payable from Municipal funds. Grants earned by boys in rural circles under the first, second, and third shall be payable from Local Funds.”

(17.) *Grants to Superintendents of Girls' Schools and teachers of female Normal schools.*—The provisions of the Code did not provide for the grant of special aid towards the salaries of Superintendents of Girls' schools, or teachers in female Normal schools, and as such aid was felt very necessary for the development of female education, the following addition was made to Rule 46 of the Code :—

RULE 46.—After the words “in schools for Muhammadans” were inserted “and Mistresses employed as Superintendents of Girls' schools or teachers in female Normal schools as well as Mistresses in schools in remote and backward parts of the country, where, in the Director's opinion, the fees levied at authorized rates do not cover a reasonable portion of the teacher's salary.”

(18.) *Special aid to Middle and High schools in rural tracts and to Normal and practising schools.*—In the case of High and Middle schools, in rural tracts, the attendance was not always sufficient to provide a fair proportion of the cost of an efficient staff, and the managers were led to rest satisfied with teachers

of inferior attainments. To give special aid in the case of deserving schools and also to provide for aid being given towards the salaries of teachers of Normal and attached practising schools, the following addition was made to Article 27:—

“ For Middle and High schools situated in rural towns and villages, in which the fees do not cover an adequate portion of the school expenditure, and also for all Normal schools, and attached practising schools, the Director may sanction a grant not exceeding one-half of the total salary to a trained master of the first, second, or third grade, and a grant not exceeding one-third of the total salary to a master of any of the said grades holding ordinary certificate.”

(19.) *Introduction of Hygiene in Girls' Schools.*—On the recommendation of the Inspectress of Girls' Schools; Hygiene was introduced as an additional alternative subject for girls under the third standard, this subject being more popular and more practically useful than history; and the grant for the subject was fixed at Rs. 2.

(20.) *Zenana Education.*—The scheme tentatively sanctioned in 1882-83 for carrying out Zenana education was tested by the National Indian Association, and several practical difficulties having occurred, certain amendments were carried out, which are noticed further on.

Several minor amendments in the Code were also sanctioned during the year, which however, need no special mention here.

A revised Grant-in-aid Code was sanctioned in October 1884, embodying the recommendations made by the committee appointed by Government to consider measures for the encouragement of European education and also incorporating the amendments in the Code sanctioned by Government from time to time since the promulgation of the Code in 1880. The important changes in the Code sanctioned during the year 1884-85 were as follows:—

Attendance at Industrial Schools.—In the case of ordinary day schools, an attendance of three hours per diem was required of each pupil. This rule was found to bear hard

on industrial schools, in which the children are employed on industrial work for a considerable part of the year during the hours usually allotted to schooling. The duration of daily attendance was accordingly reduced to two hours as in the case of Night schools. (Government Order, Educational, dated 22nd April 1884, No. 199).

Zenana education.—The rule tentatively sanctioned in 1882 for encouraging Zenana education was found inconvenient in several ways. It was found impracticable to have so high a minimum as fifteen pupils. The restriction regarding the maximum age and the household minimum also appeared unnecessary, and the whole rule was amended as follows. (Government Order, Educational, dated 16th May 1884, No. 254):—

“Grants-in-aid of the salaries of qualified female teachers of Hindu and Muhammadan girls pursuing their studies in private houses may be sanctioned by the Director of Public Instruction according to the scale laid down in Rule 43, provided (1) that the teacher is employed by the manager of a girls’ school or by a regularly-constituted committee, society, or association; (2) that the current accounts, the list of establishment, each household class, together with the time-table, the scheme of studies, and register of attendance, so far as secular instruction is concerned, are subject to Government inspection; (3) that each pupil receives instruction according to the standard in which she may be studying in one or more languages, in arithmetic, in history and geography, and in hygiene; (4) that such monthly fees as may be from time to time prescribed are levied, provided that in no case shall the monthly fee for each pupil be less than Rupee 1; (5) that the total number of pupils under instruction shall not be less than 10; (6) that the pupils under instruction be not less than ten years of age; (7) that the teacher devote in the aggregate to all the classes not less than 20 hours weekly.”

The Code provided that a school receiving aid under the salary-grant system could not claim assistance in the same official year under the results system and *vice versa*. A change was considered necessary in this restriction on the transfer of middle and primary education charges in Municipalities to the Commissioners concerned, as these departments of institutions might be aided by the Municipalities either on the salary or on the results system. The following

addition was, therefore, made to the Article in question (Government Order, Educational, dated 28th May 1884, No. 297) :—

“ Colleges and high schools receiving aid from Municipal funds on the results grant system for their middle or primary departments may receive grant on the salary system from Provincial funds for teachers wholly employed in the college and high school departments.”

Aid on the combined system.—Municipalities and Local Fund Boards have Aided schools on a combination of fixed stipends and results grants, but practically only that portion of the grant, which falls within the results system, was admitted by the Code. With the view of bringing the combined system within the operation of the Code and of checking the tendency of local bodies to grant unduly high fixed stipends to unqualified teachers in combined system schools, the following addition to Article 57 of the Code (old) was sanctioned (Government Order, Educational, dated 28th May 1884, No. 297) :—

“ But schools aided on the results grant system may receive aid for the fixed monthly stipends of teachers at one-half of the rates fixed, and on the conditions laid down, in Chapter II, provided that ordinarily the results grant earnable by the school shall not exceed 50 per cent. of the rates fixed in Article 76.”

Minimum attendance in Muhammadan Girls' Schools.—To qualify a girls' school for admission to the list of results schools to be examined for grant, an average minimum attendance of eight pupils in Municipalities during the three months preceding the application for grant was required by the Code. With a view to encourage the establishment of private schools for Muhammadan girls on the results system, the average minimum attendance required in Municipalities was reduced to four (Government Order, Educational, 20th June 1884, No. 331).

Needle-work tests.—Certain defects having been brought to the notice of the Director of Public Instruction after the public examinations of 1883-84, in regard to the standards prescribed for tests in needle-work, he appointed a committee of ladies to consider the subject. The committee, of which Mrs. Brander and Misses Carr, Keely, Eddes and Gordon were members, recommended revised standards, and these were sanctioned by Government in their Order, dated 10th July 1884, No. 383, Educational.

Revision of rule regarding grants for furniture.—The rule regarding the grant for furniture was not sufficiently clear or stringent, as it was found that in certain cases furniture was ordered or supplied in anticipation of the approval of the department and was of inferior design or quality. Rule 94 of the Code was revised as follows to make the matter clear (Government Order, Educational, dated 27th August 1884, No. 523):—

“All applications for furniture grants must be accompanied by an estimate in the form given in Appendix H and should be submitted to the office of the Director of Public Instruction through the Inspector of Schools of the division. The manufacture of the furniture should not be begun, or any arrangements for purchase completed, in anticipation of the Director's approval. Grants will not be allowed for school benches made without backs. In the event of the estimate being approved and of a grant being sanctioned, the amount of the grant will be paid on the Manager's producing satisfactory proof that the work has been duly executed in accordance with the approved estimate. Applications for grants for apparatus, maps, books, diagrams, and examples must be accompanied by a detailed list showing number, description, and price of each article which it is proposed to purchase. If the list be approved and a grant sanctioned, the amount of the grant will be paid on submission of the necessary vouchers that the articles have been supplied. Grants are limited to one-half of the total cost.”

History in the Third and Fourth Results Standards.—The quantity required by the Code was found unduly great, and the portion was accordingly reduced (Government Order, Educational, dated 12th August 1884, No. 467).

Rewards to wives and widows of Hindu and Muhammadan Masters who had obtained Normal Certificates.—The Code allowed honoraria amounting to Rs. 60, Rs. 120 and Rs. 240 to the wife or widow of a Hindu or Muhammadan Master on her passing for an ordinary certificate of the third, second or first grade. With a view to induce such persons to enter Normal schools, the following addition was made to Article 22 of the Code (Government Order, Educational, dated 30th October 1884, No. 678):—

“The same rewards will be given to students of the same classes who have obtained Normal certificates, provided they

have, after passing, been engaged continuously in school-teaching, for two years in the case of third grade mistresses and for three years in the case of second and first grade mistresses and have worked to the satisfaction of the Inspector."

Change of the Madras Municipal year.—The year of the Madras Municipality has been altered so as to correspond with the official year, the dates prescribed for the submission of applications for results grants and for the preparation and publication of results schools lists were altered so as to be in harmony with the change in the year.

Under the orders of the Madras Government, a committee* was appointed in 1885 to revise the Grant-in-aid Code in order to remedy admitted defects, to simplify it, to adapt its provisions when thought expedient to the recommendations of the Commission, and to suggest any further changes which the peculiar educational necessities and administrative organization of the Presidency appeared to call for. The Code as thus revised was sanctioned by Government in July 1885. The main features of the new Code are summed up below :—

(1) The revision of the scale of salaries for professors and teachers of all grades with reference to the importance of their work (Chapter II, Article 29).

(2) The provision of grants to superior teachers of music, singing, drawing, and Oriental or other languages, and to superior industrial teachers; to supervisors of groups of schools; and to matrons and superintendents of European boarding-schools (Chapter II, Article 29).

(3) The provision of specially favourable rates of salary grants to Masters employed in science, art, or industrial schools or classes (Chapter II, Article 31).

(4) The grants of honoraria to teachers for a pass in extra languages (Chapter II, Article 39).

* The committee consisted of the following members :—
Mr. H. B. Grigg, (*President*). Right Rev. J. Colgan, Mr. S. Appu Sastry, Mr. Abdur Razzaq, Dr. John Bradshaw, Mrs. Brander, Rev. James Cooling, Mr. L. Garthwaite, Rev. R. Handmann, Rev. E. Sell, and Mr. P. Vijayaranga Mudaliyar.

(5) The grant of passage money, not exceeding Rs. 250, to specially qualified teachers and lady superintendents got from England, and also to and from England for teachers actually employed as such and sent to Europe for special training (Chapter II, Article 42).

(6) The maintenance of a standing list of results grant schools (Chapter III, Article 2).

(7) The restriction as to the age of pupils presented for the several standards (Chapter III, Article 29).

(8) The revision of the scheme of compulsory and optional subjects. Reading, writing with spelling, and arithmetic form the compulsory subjects. Special subjects of practical importance, such as drawing, object lessons, domestic economy and mensuration were introduced among optional subjects (Chapter III, Article 33).

(9) The institution of an infant standard.

(10) The introduction of a distinction between merit and ordinary grants (Chapter III, Article 34).

(11) The awards of results grants for gymnastics (Chapter III, Article 44).

(12) The revision of the scale of results grants with reference to the distinction between "ordinary" and "merit" grants in the compulsory and optional subjects of the different standards (Chapter III, Article 49).

(13) The recognition of aid on the combined system, that is, a combination of a salary grant and a results grant (Chapter IV).

(14) The provision of Grants-in-aid for promoting technical education in science, art and industries (Chapter V).

(15) The recognition of and the granting of aid to training schools of the different grades (Chapter VI).

(16) The grant of scholarships to young men sent by Managers of schools to be trained in a recognized gymnasium with a view to their becoming gymnastic instructors (Chapter VI, Article 8).

(17) The institution of scholarship grants to colleges and Upper Secondary schools for boys and to Secondary schools for girls, the scholarships to be awarded by competition to enable students to pass through particular departments of institution (Chapter VII).

(18) Feeding and clothing grants to European schools (Chapter VIII).

(19) Grants to industrial standards (Chapter IX).

(20) The provision of small grants for village school-houses (Chapter X, Article 5).

(21) The provision of grants to public libraries incorporated under Act XXI. of 1860 (Chapter XI, Article 3).

(22) Grants for the endowment of professorships, teacher-ships, scholarships and Museums (Chapter XII).

(23) The financial restriction in the case of salary grant institutions, that the grants shall not exceed the amount by which the receipts of an institution (exclusive of grants) fall short of the expenditure *plus* 10 per cent. of the expenditure to serve as working balance (Chapter II, Article 11).

(24) The financial restriction in the case of results grants, that the grants passed for an institution shall not exceed the amount sanctioned and notified in the *Gazette* by more than 20 per cent. of the estimate (Chapter III, Article 57).

The changes introduced into the Code in 1886-87 are briefly noted below :—

(1) *Grants to Mappilla Schools.*—The encouragement given to Mappilla education by the District Board of Malabar was found insufficient, and with a view to set free more funds, it was decided that grants to Mappilla schools and for Mappillas reading in other schools should be paid from 1st April 1886 from Provincial funds, provided such schools were not situated in Municipalities. A clause to this effect was inserted in Article 3 of Chapter I of the Code. This step resulted in a large increase in the number of Mappilla schools and pupils. The District Board also established a second Normal school for Mappillas at Tellicherry.

(2) *Grants to Fancy Needle-work.*—The Code did not provide for making a pass in plain needle-work compulsory to earn a grant for fancy needle-work, although the encouragement of the latter at the expense of the former was in no way contemplated. A clause was inserted in note to Article 49, Chapter III of the Code, to prevent such a tendency.

(3) *Weaving and Luce-making Industries.*—These industries were not provided for in the Code of 1885. The establishment of schools in southern districts for special instruc-

tions in these industries led to their inclusion in the list of trades enumerated in Chapter IX, Article 1, of the Code.

(4) *Results Curriculum for European Schools.*—The subject of domestic economy was introduced as an optional subject for European girls in the fifth and sixth standards; and a small manual prepared by Miss Keely, Superintendent of the Doveton Girls' School, provided suitable aid for instruction on the subject. The introduction of the subject was calculated to have a beneficial effect on the Eurasian population.

In 1887-88 there were no changes of any importance; but in 1888-89, the following additions were made to Articles 9 and 18 of Chapter II of the Code with a view to encourage Indigenous schools:—

“*Article 9 of Chapter II.*—In superior Indigenous schools in which Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian or Urdu is taught, the average daily attendance may not be less than 10 pupils.”

“*Article 18 of Chapter II.*—Grants not exceeding one-third of total salary might be given for teachers possessing suitable qualifications, duly ascertained by the Director, employed in superior Indigenous schools intended specially for imparting instruction in Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian or Urdu.”

In the same year several changes were made in Chapter III. relating to results grants. Under the Code of 1885, the Results lists relating to Provincial funds were published in the *Fort St. George Gazette*, and those relating to Municipal and Local Funds in the District Gazettes. This course was found to be costly. For this and other reasons, sanction was accorded in Government Order, Educational, No. 88, dated 18th February 1889, for publishing the necessary number of copies of the combined list for each district in a separate form, for distribution among Managers and for exhibition in Post Offices and in all Tahsildar's and Deputy Tahsildar's offices, the cost of printing being divided among Provincial, Local and Municipal funds, in proportion to the number of schools to be aided from each source. Very important changes were carried out in Articles 1, 3

and 4 of Chapter III, relating to the dates for application for grant, the submission of lists, and the publication of sanction. The dates in the Code were not fixed late enough in the year to suit the convenience of Managers and to secure the presentations for examinations, more nearly approaching the figures entered in the estimates under the respective standards. The dates, however, were not changed absolutely but power was given to the Director to fix them so as to correspond with the necessities of districts or towns. The only date which was changed completely was the date of latest publication of the Results lists from the 31st March to the 1st May. Several verbal alterations were made so as to bring out clearly the position of Assistant Inspectors in the Results list. Important modifications were also introduced into Articles 59 and 60, relating to the payment of results grants from Local as opposed to those from Municipal funds. Presidents of Taluk Boards had hitherto to countersign Certifying Memoranda before they were cashed. The result was that in several cases Managers, whose grants were duly sanctioned, had to wait for weeks before they could obtain the necessary sanction, and in not a few cases grants earned in one year were postponed to the following year with the result that Board expended on other purposes what by the orders of Government they were bound to expend on results grants. Under the new arrangement, Certifying Memoranda to be paid from Local Funds, like those appertaining to Provincial funds, had to be countersigned by the Inspector. Sanction was obtained for including Carpet-weaving, Embroidery and Braid-making among the trades in Chapter IX of the Code and suitable tests were prescribed in each of these trades. The following addition was made in Chapter X of the Code. The words "of Boards schools or" were inserted after the words

“in the case” in Article 5 of the Chapter. The object of the change was to induce Local Boards to apply for aid from Provincial funds with a view to the erection of suitable houses or sheds for their Primary schools. The following were some of the principal changes made in the Code in 1889-90. The maximum age of eligibility for a boarding grant was fixed in Article 6, Chapter VIII. at 16 in the case of boys. In Industrial schools, however, boys had to be kept at school for a longer period, so as to give time to acquire sufficient skill in their trades to enable them to earn a living by them. The following addition was accordingly made to the Article :—

“ Provided that in the case of Industrial schools having boarding departments, grants may be continued for a boy beyond the above age subject to the restriction that for no such pupil shall grant be allowed beyond a total period of five years.”

To the list of subjects specified in Article 1, Chapter IX, pottery and band music were added during the year. In Industrial schools grants for literary subjects were restricted to the Fifth and Lower standards, but on Mr. Grigg's recommendation, this restriction was removed. In 1890-91 certain changes were introduced into Chapter VI of the Code relating to the period of training and the scale of scholarship grants for Normal students. In the same year, machine-knitting, hand-knitting, white embroidery and tape-making were added to the list of trades in Article 1 of Chapter IX. A revised draft of Chapter III of the Code was submitted by Mr. Griggin May 1891 but owing to the promulgation of the Madras Educational Rules and the new Fee Notification and many other changes the whole Code was revised finally by Dr. D. Duncan. Sanction was accorded by Government in November 1893 to the revised Grant-in-aid Code submitted by Dr. Duncan in the month of June

preceding. The revision chiefly consisted in the simplification and re-arrangement of the various provisions of the Code of 1885, the introduction of special provisions with reference to the Educational Rules promulgated in 1891, the incorporation of the special concessions sanctioned by Government in favour of Panchama classes early in 1893, the supersession by the assignment system of the estimate system as regards the fixing of results grants and the omission of the provisions relating to grants of honoraria and passage money and petty grants.

The standing orders of the Educational Department,* issued in 1880, by Colonel Macdonald, had been amended and amplified from time to time by Mr. Grigg. In the course of eight or nine years, many changes had taken place in the condition of public instruction, and it was accordingly considered expedient to bring out a new Code to suit the altered circumstances. A Committee was appointed in November 1889, with Dr. Duncan as President, for the revision of the standing orders. Following the lines sketched by Government, the committee drew up a set of rules which it recommended for adoption under the designation of the "Madras Educational Rules." The most important rules were divided into two sections—those which should be enforced in every recognized school, and those additional rules which should be enforced in every aided institution. A section was added containing hints and suggestions on teaching and on the management of schools, the adoption of which should be left to the discretion of managers. With slight modifications, these were submitted for the sanction of Government and received its approval in February 1891. Mr. Grigg added a new section applicable to Departmental, Local and

Madras Educational Rules.

* *Vide* page 128.

Municipal schools. Under the first set of rules, all institutions presenting candidates for public examination are required to be recognized by the Department, and to secure such recognition, they have to satisfy certain conditions as to the sufficiency and efficiency of the staff, the nature and amount of the accommodation, the sanitation, the supply of furniture and apparatus, and the maintenance of certain prescribed registers. The observance of certain inter-school rules framed to check the growing evil of immigration of pupils from school to school was also laid down as a condition of recognition. To the Educational Rules, approved by Government early in 1891, three new sections relating to the working of Training schools under public and private management and the award of Teachers' certificates were added during the year 1891-92. The Teachers' College, the Presidency Training School for Mistresses, the Female Training school, Coimbatore, and the Hobart Training class for Muhammadan women worked each under separate rules sanctioned from time to time; whereas the other Training schools had no definite and uniform rules to be guided by. It was therefore considered expedient for the efficient administration of training institutions of every grade that one set of rules should be drawn up for all institutions under public and private management. Opportunity was also taken to draw up rules to regulate the procedure for the award of Teachers' certificates, and to provide more accurate designations for the different grades of certificates. Training institutions were classed into five grades with reference to the minimum general education qualifications of the students trained in them, and a new nomenclature corresponding to this was adopted for the different grades of certificates. Government having approved of a revised curriculum with reference to Chapter III.

of the Grant-in-aid Code, a new section entitled "Courses of Instruction and standards of examination" was added to the rules, and this was made applicable to all recognized schools, whether under public or private management, whether aided by salary grants or by results grants.

The number of Professional colleges increased during the period under review from 3 to 6 and the attendance in them from 162 to 759. The three colleges in 1881 were the Medical College, the College of Engineering, and the Law College or rather the Law Department of the Presidency College. In 1893 besides these three there were the College of Agriculture, the Teachers' College, Saidapet, and the Training College, Calicut. No important changes were effected in the organization of the Medical College during the period under review, only in 1879 the College was thrown open to female students and since then a fair number have qualified for medical diplomas. The College consists of four departments, *viz.*, the College department educating for the University degrees and the Apothecary, the Hospital Assistant and the Chemist and Druggists' departments, educating for the College certificates of qualification. The Apothecary department is for military pupils qualifying for employ as military Apothecaries and for female students only. The other departments are open to males and females possessing certain general educational qualifications. The Auxiliary Medical School at Royapuram which was established in 1877 to meet a deficiency in the strength of the subordinate Medical establishment during the Madras famine, was affiliated to the Medical College in 1879. Between 1881 and 1883 a committee sat to report on the question of reorganization of the Engineering College. They advised that the College should be constituted

Professional
Colleges.

to meet the Engineering wants, not only of the Public Works Department, but of the country generally, that the standard of theoretical training should be extended and raised, and be supplemented by a thorough practical training, and that all examinations should be conducted by an independent Board. These proposals were approved and the present system was brought into force in 1886, when the institution changed its designation to "College of Engineering." Additional staff (including two Professorships, one of Engineering and one of Mathematics) and buildings were provided in 1888, since which the institution has steadily gained in popularity and efficiency. The School of Agriculture established in 1876 also underwent considerable development. The standard of instruction in it was gradually raised until in 1884, it was considered proper to alter the name of the institution into the "Agricultural College." In 1886 the Agricultural College was thoroughly reorganized when its designation was changed into "College of Agriculture." The standard of instruction was considerably raised; a Junior department formed, and the old system of granting certificates by the College teachers abolished. From 1886 the College was directed to send up its students for the Higher Examination in Science, Art, Industries and Commerce (now called the Government Technical Examinations). In 1891 the Junior department was closed. In September 1888, Mr. Grigg submitted proposals for establishing a Law College in Madras in place of the Law classes hitherto conducted at the Presidency College; and Government, in approving generally his proposals, remarked as follows, (*vide* G. O., dated 7th November 1888, No. 634, Educational):—

"The Government entirely agree with the opinion of the Director of Public Instruction that great chan-

ges are necessary in the present arrangement for Law instruction before the needs of the case are fully met. The classes are too large to be effectively taught by a single teacher, and the course of instruction which the students undergo is quite inadequate. It is also evident that the Law Classes have outgrown the limits of their original institution as a branch of the Presidency College, and the Government concur with the conclusion at which Mr. Grigg has arrived that an independent institution should be organized."

The Secretary of State's sanction for the constitution of the Law Collge was received in the month of March, 1891 but the reorganization of the Law College, as a separate institution, took effect on the 2nd May 1891, the date on which Mr. Nelson entered upon his duties as Principal. For want of suitable accommodation the College is held at present partly in the Presidency College and partly in the Senate House. The construction of separate buildings has, however, been taken in hand. The College has been thrown open to candidates for the First and Second Grade Pleader-ship Examinations of the High Court and the U. C. S. Law Examinations besides those for the B. L. Degree Examination. The Government Normal School which was established in Madras in 1856 underwent very important developments. In 1883 arrangements were made for special instruction in the science and history of education. In 1885 Government sanctioned the removal of the school to Saidapet, and the school was reorganized and affiliated to the University of Madras in February 1886 under the designation of the "Teachers' College" to work up to the degree of Licentiate in Teaching, which was established by the University. The Government sanctioned the appointment of two additional teachers in April 1889 in the Teachers' College,

one to give instruction in book-keeping, commercial correspondence and political economy, and the other in surveying and levelling, mensuration and geometrical drawing, so as to meet the demand of school Managers for superior teachers of special subjects. The staff was further strengthened by the appointment of a European Vice-Principal, and provision made not only for the training of a large number of superior teachers and of teachers of technical subjects, but also for training teachers of the primary grade and for the affiliation of other Normal institutions to it. The Government College, Calicut, was constituted a Second Grade Training College in 1892.

Progress of
Technical and
Industrial
Education.

It was only in 1884 that an attempt was made to develop in the Presidency scientific and technical education beyond the scope of the Madras University. Mr. Grigg, in September 1883 (*Vide* Government Order, Educational, No. 620, dated 4th October 1884), submitted the outline of a scheme for promoting technical education which was approved by Government, and its introduction was recognized as a "great step towards a sound system of education for South India." In the scheme great stress was laid on the constitution of a separate examining agency for defining the technical and industrial subjects of study, conducting examinations therein and granting diplomas and certificates. In working out this part of the scheme it was thought advisable to begin with the Middle School Examination, and in December 1884 proposals were submitted for introducing Industrial and Commercial subjects into that examination and for extending systematically and bringing into more prominence examinations in Science and Art. With a view to meet this object the Middle School Examination Notification was modified and also amplified,

and the following subjects were added to the scheme :—Geology, Electricity and Magnetism, Music, Modelling and Wood-engraving, Domestic Economy, Carpentry, Ironsmiths' work, Jeweller and Silversmiths' work, Printing, Tailoring, Boot and Shoe-making, Industrial Needle-work, Telegraphy. The following commercial subjects were added subsequently :—Shorthand, Book-keeping, Mercantile Arithmetic, Commercial Geography, Commercial Correspondence, Fire, Life and Marine Insurance and Advanced Spelling and Superior Penmanship. In September 1886 Lace-making, Weaving and Rattan-work were also added. The Middle School Examination played no insignificant part in the development of elementary technical education, for many schools readily adapted themselves to the practical side of the scheme. Under the Middle School Notification, prizes and scholarships were offered to pupils who distinguished themselves in Science, Art or Industries. It was objected that the bifurcation of studies or the introduction of the so-called "modern side" should not have begun so low down in the Middle School, but those who raised this objection forgot that the Middle School test was the final examination for courses of instruction extending in most subjects over three and four years, that the vast majority of pupils of the artizan and poorer classes—those in fact, who were chiefly concerned—could not be kept at school beyond this stage, and that a large number of those who qualified as teachers in Art or Industrial subjects could not go beyond this stage owing to their low educational attainments. The changes in the Middle School Examination were also framed in harmony with Mr. Grigg's proposal for the Higher Examinations in 'Science, Art and Industries,' introduced subsequently on 31st March 1886, with a view to enable pupils, more especially those in technical institutions, without

sacrificing the essential portions of their general education, to lay the foundation of a practical education at an early stage of their career. The object of Government in instituting the Higher Examination in Science, Art and Industries, which was a part of Mr. Grigg's scheme, was "to encourage advanced instruction in Science and Art, especially in those kinds of knowledge which bear upon the different branches of industry now existing in this Presidency or suitable for it, and to furnish a means of testing wholly or in part the qualifications of persons desirous of becoming Mechanical Engineers, Scientific Agriculturists, and Science, Art or Technical teachers." The first examination under the Technical Notification was held on the 6th of September 1886: since then these examinations have grown in popularity. The influence already exercised by the Higher Examinations in Science, Art and Industries, or the Government Technical Examinations, as they are now called, on educationists and on the public at large, in favour of a more practical form of education, has been already appreciable though these examinations were not recognized by the State as tests for the Public Service in the first instance. The recommendation of the Education Commission regarding bifurcation in the Upper Secondary course was given effect to by the institution of the Upper Secondary Examination to which reference has already been made.* The steps taken to develop technical and scientific education were not confined merely to the organization of a system of examinations. Mr. Grigg in his original scheme stated that "in starting in this Presidency an organization for the development of a system of improved technical education, it will be well, profiting by the experience of our pre-

* *Vide* page 214.

decessors in a similar path at home and abroad, to try the stimulating effect of a scheme of examinations, supplemented by a system of liberal Grants-in-aid, making at the same time provision for the supply, so urgently needed, of well-instructed and professionally trained teachers. And, in addition to this, steps will need to be taken to develop the scientific and art institutions now existing at the Presidency, so as to make them, not only teach all or most of the sciences and arts of which need is at present felt, but also serve both for the provision of a supply of science and art teachers and as models for private effort." Effect was given either wholly or in part to every one of these suggestions. Professorships in Biology and Physical Science have been established in connection with the Presidency College. Liberal aid has been given to Professors of Natural Sciences in the Madras Christian College and St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly. Provision has been made for the study of the physical sciences in the Rajahmundry College. The College of Engineering has been reorganized and two additional professorships have been instituted. The School of Arts has been developed, as far as financial exigencies would allow, as an industrial institute so as to afford practical instruction in Drawing of all kinds, as well as in Pottery, Metal-work, Wood-carving, Lacquer-work and Carpet-weaving. The Grant-in-aid Code has been revised with the view of affording liberal provision for Grants-in-aid of science, art and industrial schools. Chapter V. relating to Industrial schools was specially framed to meet this object and the effect of the provisions of this chapter has been remarkable in the development of Industrial schools. Institutions like the Art and Industrial school, Nazareth, the Anjumani-Mufeedi-Ali-Islam, the Madras Industrial school, St. Patrick's Orphanage, Adyar, and others

would never have been able to hold their ground had it not been for the substantial aid they have received under the new Code. In the year 1883-84 there were four Industrial Schools with an attendance of 138 pupils, and in 1892-93 the number was 16 and the strength 1,046. An attempt was made to establish classes in special subjects in institutions for general education. In the Rajahmundry College classes were opened in Electro-metallurgy and Carpentry, and in the Kumbaconum College a Drawing class was opened. These classes have not proved a success. Efforts have, however, been made with some success to introduce Drawing into the colleges and schools. A Technical institute was started by the District Board at Madura in 1890. A great deal has been done by private, more especially Mission agencies, to encourage Industrial education, but several of the Industrial schools under private management are lacking in definite organization. The heavy expenditure connected with an Industrial school is a matter for serious consideration to Managers of schools. The expenses connected with an Industrial school are in every way greater than those of an ordinary school, whilst at the same time hardly anything can be realized in an Industrial school in the shape of fees. The profits from articles of manufacture form no doubt a source of income; but, generally speaking, where much attention is paid to mere profits, there the educational character of the institution is lost sight of and the school degenerates into an ordinary workshop. Another great difficulty with which these schools have to contend against is the virtual non-existence of suitable instructors. This compels them to fall back on ordinary artizans, often of no general education whatever, as teachers. This defect in the matter of teachers can only be remedied as artizan teachers begin to be trained in technical institutions, such as the School of

Arts, and the College of Engineering. Dr. Duncan's opinion of Industrial schools is of special interest. In his report on Public Instruction for the year 1889-90, he wrote as follows :—

“I fully concur in a remark made by Mr. Grigg in last year's report that ‘where much attention is paid to mere profits, there the educational character of the institution is lost sight of and the school degenerates into an ordinary workshop.’ Unfortunately, some of the longest established and largest of the Industrial schools in this Presidency are so circumstanced that strict attention to profits is essential to their continuance. I refer to those schools the primary aim of which is to rescue the orphan and the destitute from abject misery. Depending in the first instance on the voluntary subscriptions of the charitable, they soon find it absolutely necessary to eke out their income by the profits of their manufactures. If, in the struggle to make ends meet, educational aims are apt to retire into the back-ground, who can blame the managers? By professional advice and substantial help this Department may, and does, do much to keep the educational aim from being entirely forgotten, and thus it is instrumental in raising the efficiency of these institutions as places of instruction. But to lose sight of the fundamentally charitable character of these schools cannot fail to prove injurious to the schools themselves, while to class them with Industrial schools proper is sure to result in a lowering of the standard of efficiency in the latter. To a certain extent the aims of the two classes of schools coincide; but they are organized on different bases, and the primary purpose of the one is distinct from that of the other. A school of the former kind is a charitable institution, having in view the immediate amelioration of the condition of destitute children by feeding, clothing and housing them, and by imparting to them instruction in the three Rs. and in some handicraft, so that when grown up, they may be able to gain a livelihood. A school of the latter kind is an educational institution, having in view the improvement of the arts and industries by the instruction of the rising generation in the principles that underlie the several trades and practical pursuits, and by that training in the application of those principles which goes to make the skilled tradesman, mechanic, artist, or agriculturist. Classes of institutions so different as these two should not be

confounded. Above all things, the former should not be held up as the type which all Industrial schools should strive to realize. Unfortunately, most of the large Industrial schools in this Presidency are of the former kind, their main and immediate purpose being not the improvement of the arts and industries by the training of intelligent and skilled workman, but the provision of a home at the present and a means of living in the future for destitute and orphaned children. As charitable institutions, they deserve all the help the State can give. But it follows from their peculiar character that they cannot be subjected to the same regulations as institutions the primary aim of which is educational. Profits must bulk largely in the minds of the managers of the former; the less they do so in minds of the managers of the latter, the better. In pursuance of the policy of keeping the educational aim in the fore-ground in Technical and Industrial schools proper, Mr. Grigg has in recent years striven to develop to their utmost capacity the schools under the immediate control of the Department, such as the School of Arts, and to afford liberal grants to aided schools, like the one at Nazareth, which seek to improve the arts and industries of the country.

When one remembers during how short a time technical and industrial education has been seriously pursued in this Presidency, one will not be surprised to find that the industries taught are not very numerous, and that the adaptation of those that are taught to the circumstances of different localities leaves much to be desired. These are matters which time alone can rectify. In drawing up the scheme of technical and industrial subjects for the Middle School examination and for the Higher examinations, Mr. Grigg purposely drew up lengthy lists, in the belief that different schools and different classes of the community would select such subjects as best suited their circumstances. Looking back on the last four or five years, one is impressed with the lack of initiative displayed in the selection of subjects. Industries are selected less with a view to the special requirements of the locality and the special circumstances of the classes in the midst of which the school is planted, than with a view to the capabilities of the different industries to earn grants in the least possible time and with the smallest possible expenditure.

The lack of qualified teachers of pure industrial subjects is

only very slowly being supplied. In subjects of a higher character and better entitled to be called technical, such as those taught in the Colleges of Engineering and Agriculture, and in the higher department of the School of Arts, the prospects of obtaining within a reasonable time a steady supply of competent instructors are fairly promising. But I can see few signs that pure Industrial schools are gradually being supplied with trained instructors in such subjects, for example, as carpentry, blacksmith's work, and weaving. Ordinary workmen are to be had in plenty for the wages offered: men who all their lives have worked in a rule-of-thumb way, ignorant of the principles on which their tools are constructed and according to which the several operations are performed. With such men as teachers, pupils do, in course of time, acquire a certain manual dexterity in carpentry, &c., but I fail to see that their skill as artisans is any whit superior to what it would have been if they had learnt their trade in the ordinary way. In visiting an Industrial school the other day, I found a boy, the son of a carpenter, learning carpentry under a native carpenter, presumably no better instructed than the boy's own father; and I could not help asking myself whether the boy's father would not have instructed him equally well, and whether carpentry as an industry was likely to be improved by such boys attending an Industrial school like the one referred to. Until we can get instructors in the various trades who not only can do the work in the presence of the pupils, but can also explain the reason why an operation is performed in one way rather than in another, I cannot look upon the work of Industrial schools as having a high educational value.

The want of competent examiners in industrial subjects also tends to retard the progress of industrial education. The smallness of the number of failures in examinations in industries at the Middle School Examination and for results grants, seems to me to point to the inference that the examiners are satisfied with an amount of knowledge and skill much below what would be accepted in ordinary scholastic subjects. It is difficult to get as examiners persons who combine with a sound general education wide practical acquaintance with some branch or branches of industry acquired in the workshop. Even in Great Britain the same difficulty occurs, but not to anything like the same extent as here. Were a special Inspector of Industrial and

Technical schools appointed as suggested by Mr. Grigg, it would be of immense benefit to this branch of education.

The scheme of the Higher Examinations in Science, Art, Industries and Commerce, elaborated in 1885 and sanctioned in 1886, while it embraced a great variety of subjects, did not distribute them into groups according to the time of the year when the examinations could be most conveniently conducted, nor did it fix the order in which the subjects should be taken up, or the number of subjects which could be brought up by a candidate at one and the same examination. Further, it did not provide fully for the constitution of local committees to conduct the oral and practical tests at Mofussil stations. It became necessary, therefore, on the institution of the Upper Secondary Examination, to revise the scheme of the Higher examinations. Moreover, Government having abolished the Middle School Examination, which included the elementary tests in a large number of technical, industrial, and commercial subjects, steps had to be taken to retain the examinations in those special subjects in a form adopted to the altered condition of things. Mr. Grigg had, for various reasons, allowed the examination in these special subjects to be connected with the examination in the literary subjects of the Middle School scheme. But the abolition of the Middle School Examination, and the substitution for it of an optional Lower Secondary Examination, was considered by him to be a convenient opportunity for effecting a separation between the two classes of subjects, and for connecting the elementary Science, Art and Industrial examinations with the Higher examinations of the technical scheme of 1885. It was also deemed expedient to entrust the higher and lower tests in technical subjects to the same boards of examiners at one and the same time, and to provide for an efficient oral and practical examination in

the several subjects. For these and other reasons the opportunity afforded by the abolition of the Middle School Examination was taken advantage of to recast the whole scheme of Government examinations in Science, Art, Industries and Commerce. The Notification was finally approved by Government in G. O. No. 776, of 1st December 1890.

In its order, dated 4th December 1891, No. 902, Educational, Government was pleased, on Dr. Duncan's recommendation, to designate the Government examinations in Science, Art, Industries and Commerce, as the Government Technical Examinations and its three sub-divisions as "the Elementary," "the Intermediate," and "the Advanced," the "Elementary grade" corresponding to the technical branches of the late Middle School Examination. The scheme of Government Technical Examinations, as revised in December 1890, and the syllabuses in the different subjects of the examinations approved in 1886 were subjected to a thorough revision and simplification, during the year 1892, by Dr. Duncan. In this work Dr. Duncan had the assistance of a committee of gentlemen who had for years been engaged in teaching, or in conducting the examinations in Technical subjects. Certain subjects which experience had shewn not to be of sufficient importance to find place in the scheme were omitted, and the remaining subjects thrown into more convenient groups. The syllabuses were revised so as to fix the standards of examination for the different grades, Elementary, Intermediate and Advanced, for which provision had been made in the Notification. In the amended Notification, approved by Government, in January 1893, Advanced examinations were provided in 32 subjects, Intermediate examinations in 84 subjects, and Elementary examinations in 53 subjects.

Training
schools.

From an early period considerable attention has been paid in this Presidency to the professional training of teachers. In its Despatch of 1854 the Court of Directors desired the establishment, with as little delay as possible, of training schools and classes for Masters in each Presidency in India. The subject was again referred to in the Despatches of 1856 and 1859; but the efforts of Christian Missions preceded those of Government even in the matter of Normal education. There seems to have been a Mission training institution in Madras as early as in 1853. The first Government Training institution was the Government Normal School, Madras, opened on the 1st March, which after a chequered career has come to be known as the 'Teachers' College. It was not till 1858 that any attempts were made to establish Normal schools and classes for the improvement and extension of elementary education in rural tracts. On the 18th March of that year, instructions were issued for the establishment of Normal schools at Mayavaram in the Tanjore district, at Cheyur in the Coimbatore district, and at Vellore in the district of North Arcot. Normal schools or classes were also subsequently established at Mangalore, Berhampur and Ellore. The Missionary Societies had also established Normal schools. The operations of the various Training schools were materially facilitated by the change which was introduced in 1858-59 in the Grant-in-aid rules, which required that every teacher in aid of whose salary a grant was made by Government, should previously pass an examination and obtain a certificate of a certain grade in proportion to the amount of the grant. Between the years 1857-58 and 1878-79, Normal education was entirely in the hands of Government and a few Mission agencies. In 1878-79 a Local Fund Normal school was for the first time opened by the Coimbatore Board. Government about this time had laid great

stress on the importance of establishing elementary Normal schools, and Local Boards were accordingly advised to open them. In 1880-81 there were altogether 26 Training schools for Masters with 694 pupils. Of the 26 schools, 12 were maintained by Government, 11 by Local Boards and 3 were aided institutions. From the year 1880-81 the number of Local Fund Normal schools increased gradually, and that of Government schools decreased so that in 1889-90, there were only four Government schools, while Board schools and schools under private management numbered 39 and 9 respectively; and the total number of students undergoing training was 1,215 against 694 in 1880-81. Local Boards were aided liberally to enable them to carry on their Normal schools, so also were the private institutions. Under G. O. No. 5,607, dated 23rd July 1891, all the Board Training schools, with the exception of those at Tinnevely and Madura, were brought under departmental management from the 1st January 1892. The change in management has effected considerable improvement in Training schools. Their status has improved owing to their being ranked as Government institutions. They are better provided as regards accommodation and proper appliances, and greater uniformity has been secured in their system of working. The work in Training schools is moreover being confined to a greater extent than hitherto to instruction in methods of teaching and school management. At the close of 1892-93 there were 54 Training schools proper for Masters. Of the 54 schools, 30 were under departmental, and 16 under Board management, and of the remaining eight, which were under private management, seven were in receipt of aid from Government. There were altogether 1,416 students under Training. Though the Training schools have done a great deal to provide elementary schools with qualified teachers, yet

it is evident that their number is inadequate to meet the great demand there is for passed and certificated teachers, especially in Primary schools. Of the 22,814 teachers in Primary schools in 1892-93, as many as 12,756 held no certificates whatever, and of the remaining number 4,268 held trained teachers' certificates, 375 untrained teachers' certificates and 5,415 general education certificates. A revised scheme of Teachers' Certificates proposed by Dr. Duncan, was approved by Government in March 1892. Teachers' certificates are mainly of two kinds (1) general Teachers' certificates, or, briefly designated, Teachers' certificates, which are certificates of ability to teach the subjects that ordinarily enter into the curricula of schools for general instruction, and (2) technical Teachers' certificates which are certificates of ability to teach technical subjects. Teachers' certificates are of five grades—Licentiate in Teaching, Second Grade Collegiate, Upper Secondary, Lower Secondary and Primary. The examination for Licentiate in Teaching is conducted by the University, and the examinations for the other grades by a Board of Examiners consisting of a President and at least four members appointed by Government for a period of three years, on the Director's recommendation, and assisted, as regards the practical tests, by local committees. Separate certificates are awarded to trained and untrained teachers. Candidates for trained Teachers' certificates are required to have gone through the regular course at a training institution and to secure a higher percentage of marks at the examination. Technical Teachers' certificates are of three grades—Advanced, Intermediate and Elementary and the examination for these certificates is also conducted by the Board mentioned above, assisted, if need be, by extra members appointed by the Director.

There has been an increase in the Training schools for Mistresses also during the period under review. In 1880-81 there were only three Training schools for Mistresses, and they were the Government Female Normal School, Madras, Christian Female Normal School, Madras, and the Sarah Tucker Female Training Institution, Palamcottah, the latter two being Mission institutions intended mainly for Native Christian teachers. In these three schools there were 119 pupils under instruction. At the close of 1892-93, there were 17 Training schools for Mistresses, containing 342 pupils. Of the 17 schools, 4 were under Government management, *viz.*, the Presidency Training school for Mistresses, the Hobart Muhammadan Training school, the Training school for Mistresses, Coimbatore, and the Moyan Training school, Calicut; the remaining 13 were aided institutions all maintained by Missions. Of the aided institutions, two—St. John's Female Training Institution, Nazareth, and the Sarah Tucker Training Institution, Palamcottah, occupy a very prominent position. In 1886-87 the Government Female Normal School, Madras, which was under the control of the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, was taken under the direct control of the Director and its designation was changed from "Government Female Normal school" to "Presidency Training school for Mistresses."

The Sessional school is intended to be an auxiliary to a regular Normal institution, its chief object being to give a preliminary training to village schoolmasters in general education previous to their being trained in a Normal school. The school is held generally for two or three months in the year. The scheme was first introduced in South Canara in 1888, on the suggestion of Mr. E. Marsden, the Inspector of Schools, and since then it has been introduced

with success in other districts. In 1892-93, 54 Sessional schools attended by 700 teachers were maintained in all the districts, Ganjam, Godaveri, Madras, Bellary, Cuddapah and Nilgiris, excepted.

Special
Schools.

A few words about some of the special schools in the Madras Presidency will not be out of place here. The Reformatory school was established under the Reformatory Schools Act V. of 1876, the chief object being the reformation of Juvenile offenders by a long period of correctional training, including courses of instruction in general education, industries, drill, gymnastics, gardening, &c., and also moral training. The school was opened on the 18th October 1887 and continued under the control of the Inspector-General of Jails until 1st October 1888, on which date it was transferred to the Educational Department, the Government being of opinion that the school could be more conveniently managed by the Director of Public Instruction. Since then the school has improved very considerably and is one of the most successful institutions of the kind in India. Among the industries taught are Blacksmithery, Carpentry, Tailoring, and Weaving. Each boy is also taught gardening and cultivation in addition to an industry. On the 31st March 1893, there were 150 pupils on the rolls. In February 1886, at the suggestion of Mr. John Adam, Principal of the Pachaiyappa's College, a Commercial Middle School was opened by the Trustees of Pachaiyappa's Charities. This school is now known as the Chengalvaroya Naicker's Commercial High School, as it is maintained from an endowment left by Chengalvaroya Naicker. It consists of Day and Evening classes and teaches up to the standard of the Technical examinations, the subjects taught being Commercial Correspondence, Book-keeping, Commercial Geography and Shorthand. A school of Music was opened in 1892 under the auspices of an influential

committee. The scheme owed its origin to Mr. Grigg. Besides the school departments of the Medical College two Board Medical schools have been in existence at Tanjore and Nellore. As a permanent memorial in the Madras Presidency of the Jubilee of Her Majesty the Queen Empress, celebrated in 1887, it was decided to establish the Victoria Technical Institute. The funds at the disposal of the Institute amount to about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of Rupees. The Institute is incorporated, and its operations are conducted by a President and Council of twelve. Very little has yet been done in the way of instruction and education, but the Council has been awarding certain scholarships with the view of enabling teachers to receive superior instruction in Technical subjects. Government in 1890-91 sanctioned the opening in representative districts of five farm schools to afford instruction in the compulsory subjects of the Upper Secondary examination and in Agriculture and the allied subjects, the institutions to work under the control of the Director of Public Instruction and the Director of Agriculture. A committee was appointed under paragraph 13 of G. O., dated 4th July 1890, No. 515, Revenue, to report fully on the details regarding the curriculum of studies, establishments, stipends, &c. The scheme for the establishment of farm schools has been deferred, pending the orders of the Government of India on Dr. Voelcker's report.

From time to time the Government of Madras has taken stock of the progress of Muhammadan education and has devised means to further its extension. That the period under review has been one of advance in this direction also will be seen from the following facts and figures. In 1881 there were 22,075 Muhammadan pupils under instruction in all the institutions. Of the 22,075, 26 were in Colleges, 98

Education of
Muhammad-
ans.

in High schools, 668 in Middle schools, 21,237* in Primary schools and the remaining 46 in Special schools. In 1893 the total number of Muhammadan pupils in public institutions alone was 70,488,† distributed as follows: 48 in Arts colleges, 9 in Professional colleges, 3,913 in Secondary schools, 66,023 in Primary schools, 155 in Training schools and 340 in other Special schools. There were in 1881, 102 Primary schools for Muhammadans maintained purely by Government. This number, however, decreased gradually for Mr. Grigg was of opinion that the establishment of separate Primary schools for Muhammadans by Government had almost everywhere proved an expensive failure. Writing in 1883 he said:—"Assurance of employment under the State and the growing demands of Western knowledge in trade transactions are the two real incentives which can be fairly relied on by friends of the improvement of this race, which numbers nearly one-fifteenth of the population of the Presidency."

In 1893 there were 41 Primary schools for Muhammadans maintained by Government, of which 27 were Girls' schools. The subject of Muhammadan education received the special attention of the Department during the year 1885-86. The Madrasa-i-Azam was reorganized and had a Matriculation class added to it in January 1886. There was a special Deputy Inspector of Muhammadan Schools whose range included the Districts of Kistna, Nellore, Madras, Chingleput, Bellary, Cuddapah, Anantapur and Kurnool. Sanction was obtained for the appointment of a special Deputy Inspector of Mapilla schools in Malabar. There were also special Inspecting Schoolmasters employed for Muhammadan schools.

* Of this number 958 were girls in Primary schools.

† Of this number 12,373 were girls.

In November 1885, Mr. Grigg submitted his views on the proposals of the District Board, Malabar, for the improvement of Mapilla education. Among other things, he suggested the payment of grants to Mapilla schools being made a Provincial charge which was approved by Government. The remarkable advance of Mapilla education in Malabar is to a great extent due to this change. Mr. Grigg, in submitting his remarks on the report of the Committee on Muhammadan educational endowments, in August 1889, pointed out the need there was for extending the special Inspecting agency for Muhammadans. Government accordingly sanctioned in 1890 the employment of two additional Sub-Assistants in the Northern and Southern Circles. This has no doubt helped to extend considerably the education of Muhammadans. The Anjumani-Mufeedi-Ahlai-Islam established in November 1885, has been doing useful work as a Technical institution with the liberal aid of Government.

In 1883-84 a Committee was appointed, with Mr. Grigg, as President, to consider whether the Bengal Code, on the education of European and Eurasian children, could be adopted in this Presidency with any modifications. The Committee held several meetings, and concluded, after careful deliberation, that the then existing Grant-in-aid Code was, with certain additions and alterations, suitable for European and Eurasian schools. Their recommendations accordingly were incorporated with the Grant-in-aid Code. The revised Code was sanctioned by Government in October 1884 and came into effect from the 22nd idem. Provision was made for award of scholarships to enable pupils of promise to prosecute their studies to higher standards, for the aid of recognized boarding schools, orphanages, and homes for destitute children by means of grants for feeding and clothing,

Education of
Europeans
and Eurasians.

and for the encouragement of industrial schools by grants for work turned out in the trades of carpentry, printing, blacksmiths' work, and such other trades as may from time to time be approved by Government. Separate standards of examination under the results system were prescribed, and the provisions of the Code, which could not well be applied to European schools, were slightly modified. In 1886-87 a sum of Rs. 17,451 was expended on boarding and clothing grants. The total number of European and Eurasian pupils under instruction in all classes of institutions advanced from 5,730 in 1880-81 to 7,152 in 1892-93. There are only two Colleges, the Doveton and St. Mary's Colleges, specially intended for Europeans and Eurasians. At the close of 1893 there were 7 boys' and 15 girls' schools of the Upper Secondary standard. Among the High schools, the Bishop Corrie's Grammar school, under the able management of the Rev. J. W. Foley, occupies the most prominent place. The Dove-ton Girls' school, under Miss Keely, has been doing useful work for several years past, and a new High school for girls was started in Madras under the name of "Bishop-Corrie's Girls' school" in 1892-93. The Lawrence Asylum, Ootacamund, has been organized as an Industrial school. Among Technical schools that have been of great benefit to the Eurasian community may be mentioned the Madras Industrial school established in 1874, and St. Patrick's Orphanage, Adyar, in 1887.

Education of
aboriginal
and backward
races.

The following are some of the steps that were taken by Government to promote education among the aboriginal and backward races. Government schools were established in the Agency tracts of the Northern Circars, but these have not made the progress which was hoped for, owing chiefly to the absence of an organized system of indigenous education in

those tracts. The comparative inaccessibility of the country ; the generally unhealthy character of the climate ; the indifference of parents to the education of their children ; the dread that education will be followed by vaccination, sanitation, and the usual accompaniments of civilization ; the absence of a suitable teaching agency—these among other things have hitherto proved a barrier to the advance of even the most elementary education in the outlying portions of the Northern Circars. With a view to induce teachers in aided schools to endeavour to secure the attendance of pupils of the aboriginal and backward classes, the Grant-in-aid Code Committee of 1885 made liberal provision in the Code. Grants were given to pupils of about 30 classes (including Chucklers, Malas, Pallas and Paraiyas, at rates 50 per cent. higher than the prescribed rates.) Special scholarships also were reserved for pupils belonging to these classes. It is the Missionary Societies that have been labouring chiefly among the lowest castes in the plains. The agitation in favour of the education of Paraiyas and kindred classes is of recent origin, and owes its initiative to the sympathy of Missionary bodies. In his report on Public Instruction for 1891-92, Dr. Duncan referred specially to the education of Paraiyas. According to his estimate the number of children of Paraiyas and kindred classes under instruction that year was 22,888. The male and female populations of school-going age of these classes* were estimated at 431,653 and 444,958 respectively, so that the percentage of male pupils to male population of school-going age was 4·5 and

* The several classes known in different districts by the designations of Chachadís (Tsachadís), Chakkalís (Cobblers) Chamarís, Chandálás, Godáris, Holayás, Mádegás, Málás, Mochís, Pardís, Pallás, Pallís, (Nellore), Pamís, Paraiyás, Polayás, Rellís, Totís and Valluvars have been treated in the Departmental returns as constituting one class, under the name "Paraiyas and kindred classes."

that of female pupils to female population of school-going age 77. In 1892 Dr. Duncan had under consideration an important scheme for the extension of education among the Paraiyas and kindred classes and for ameliorating their condition. All the important Missionary Societies which have taken a special interest in the welfare of these backward classes were consulted. The appointment of a special inspecting staff for the examination and improvement of Panchama schools and the establishment of Training schools for Paraiya teachers were suggested, and the Government expressed itself favourably on both these proposals. The opening of special schools from public funds—a suggestion which was strongly put forth by the Mission bodies consulted—was commended for the earnest consideration of Local Boards and Municipal Councils. Sundry other concessions which were solicited, regarding the levying of fees, and the conditions that should be fulfilled for earning grants, were sanctioned. The free grant of poramboke lands for school sites was also approved, and opportunity was taken, in revising the Grant-in-aid Code, to provide special facilities for the encouragement of education among these backward classes. It was ascertained that there were 1,411 public institutions on the 31st March 1893 mainly or wholly intended for these classes, attended by 31,349 pupils. Besides these, 26 private schools with 310 pupils also furnished returns. Of the public schools, 884 were maintained or aided from public funds, and 527 received no support from public funds. With the exception of six Secondary schools the rest were all of the Primary Grade.

Night Schools
and Schools
for the Blind.

Every encouragement has been given to the Night school movement as these schools occupy an important place in the educational system, though as yet it

has not been found possible to increase their number very rapidly. These schools are eminently suited to certain localities, especially rural tracts, where boys and young men are desirous of getting some education, but cannot attend the Day schools in their neighbourhood, their services being required in agricultural or industrial work during the greater portion of the day. The provisions of the Code for regulating grants to these schools have been so designed that there need be no apprehension of these schools being opened in places where they are not needed or as rivals to Day schools. Inspecting officers are required to visit and examine the schools, classify the pupils, and obtain particulars of their age, caste, and occupation of each pupil, before recommending a Night school for admission to the results list. In 1884-85 there were 291 Night schools with 5,420 pupils, in 1892-93, the number of schools was 934 with 16,649 pupils. Of the 934, Boards maintained 63; 320 were aided, 544 unaided, and 7 were private institutions. In its Order No. 58, Educational, dated 24th January 1891, Government was pleased to sanction, on Mr. Grigg's recommendation, certain concessions in favour of a school for blind children opened at Palamcottah. In 1892-93 there were three such schools in the Presidency, one for blind boys and one for blind girls at Palamcottah, and the third for blind boys at Panivalai in the Tenkasi Taluk, all in the Tinnevely District. The three schools were respectively attended by 15, 11 and 8 pupils whose ages ranged from 8 to 27. Instruction was given in these schools in Reading and Writing up to the Fourth Standard. Rope-making, basket-making and rope-netmaking were taught to boys and bead-threading, basket-making and knitting to girls with success. To Miss Askwith, the Superintendent of the Sarah Tucker Institution, belongs the credit of having

started these institutions, the first of the kind in this Presidency. Dr. Duncan, writing on the subject of schools for the blind and deaf mutes, says:—"The Census of 1891 gives the number of the blind of the two sexes in the Presidency as 17,715 and 18,709, and there were over 2,150 blind boys and about 1,600 blind girls between the ages of 5 and 14. It is a pity that the Department has not yet been able to devise any general measures for lessening the disadvantages under which these afflicted people labor. A similar remark might be made with regard to the deaf mutes, numbering over 4,000 between the ages of 5 and 14. A boarding house where they could live and be fed and clothed, as well as taught the rudiments of knowledge and an industry, would seem to be the best means of ameliorating the condition of these unfortunate people; but such an institution cannot be established by the Department in view of its limited resources. It behoves the public-spirited and liberal-minded members of the Native community to come forward as friends-in-need of the blind and the deaf-mutes and to found one or more institutions to serve as temporary asylums and schools in which the younger members may be taught sufficient to enable them to eke out a precarious living. Elementary Readers and Arithmetics on the Braille system are being prepared in half-a-dozen South Indian languages by Mr. Garthwaite, late Inspector of Schools, and now Malayalam Translator to Government, and the Rev. Mr. Knowles of Travancore. With a view to induce philanthropists to establish schools like those at Palamcottah, an extra Result grant at 150 per cent. has been provided in the Grant-in-Aid Code for blind and deaf and dumb children."

Internal Ad-
ministration

In 1869 the Secretary of State was pleased to sanction a scale of salaries for the superior officers of the

Educational Department in each Presidency. The Madras Government was not then in a financial position to give full effect to the order, and a revised scale was accordingly sanctioned by them in August 1871. After repeated representations they advised the adoption of the new scale in 1878, when the Government of India declined to recommend the measure to the Secretary of State owing to financial pressure. At length in July 1880 sanction was given by the Secretary of State for the introduction of the increased scale of pay to the graded officers of this Presidency, and towards the close of the official year 1880-81, Government finally sanctioned the revised scheme for the graded officers. The graded service was divided into four classes and the fourteen appointments were distributed as follows:—In the first class (Rs. 1,250—1,500) one; in the second class (Rs. 1,000—1,250) two; in the third class (Rs. 750—1,000) five; and in the fourth class (Rs. 500—750) six. It was also notified that in all future arrangements “the principle of seniority tempered by selection and not that of appointments will be the guide for promotion to higher grades on the occurrence of any vacancy, and that no person will, except under very exceptional circumstances, be admitted to the graded list who has not entered it in the lowest class.” The constitution in 1883-84 of S. Canara, a separate division under a special Inspector, raised the number of Inspectors of Schools from 6 to 7. The size of the Fourth Division was reduced by transferring Trichinopoly to the charge of the Inspector of Schools, Sixth Division, the latter officer having been relieved of the charge of S. Canara. Mr. E. Marsden was appointed the first Inspector of the Seventh Division. In September 1883, Government accorded their sanction to a revised scheme of Deputy Inspectorships, the main features of which were an increase in the number of higher grade deputies, the

institution of a class of probationers on a salary of Rs. 75 per mensem, the introduction of a uniform rate of travelling allowance, and the inclusion in the general scheme of the Deputy Inspector of Muhammadan Schools and the Deputy Inspectress of Girls' Schools. All the Local Fund additional deputies, with the exception of the officer in charge of the Vellore range, East, were brought on the Provincial list, the Boards concerned having agreed to contribute towards the pay of the officers and their establishments. In 1883-84, Mr. Grigg, after consulting the Inspectors of Schools promulgated a Code for the guidance of Inspecting Schoolmasters. In July 1886, the sanction of the Secretary of State for India was received for the constitution of the Godavery and Krishna Districts a new Educational Division under the designation of the Eighth Division. The place was conferred on Mr. C. Nagojee Row, B. A., who has the honour of being the first Native Inspector of Schools. The Government having suggested in 1887-88 a reduction in the cost of the Inspecting Agency, Mr. Grigg submitted proposals to reorganize the whole staff. The main features of the whole scheme were a reduction from 8 to 4 in the number of Inspectors and that of Deputy Inspectors (to be styled in future Sub-Assistant Inspectors) from 73 to 58, the creation of a new class of Inspecting officers under the designation of Assistant Inspectors, in three grades, on salaries ranging from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500, and the appointment of an additional Inspectress with a view to all girls' schools in the Province being placed under the care and supervision of female inspecting agents. The scheme was calculated to result in an ultimate saving of over Rs. 30,000 to Provincial Funds. In approving Mr. Grigg's proposals Government observed :—" His Excellency the Governor in Council is much indebted to Mr. Grigg for these excellent proposals, which are calculated to

improve the efficiency of the inspecting staff, to admit of the extended use of native agency in a branch of the service where it may be especially useful, and in an eminent degree to promote economy." The Secretary of State's Despatch for the reorganization of the inspecting agency was received in October 1888, and with the sanction of Government, the new scheme was introduced on the 20th September 1888. Before the close of the official year the arrangements were complete and a tentative Code of Rules for regulating the duties of the Inspecting officers was issued. In consequence of the introduction of the above scheme, Messrs, Fowler and Garthwaite, who were the senior officers of the graded service, were retired on superannuation pension. Referring to these officers Mr. Grigg in his report for 1888-89 wrote as follows:— "I must not fail to record here my appreciation of the very valuable services rendered, in the cause of education in general, and to this Department in particular, by these two able officers, each of whom served the Government for over 30 years. Mr. Fowler entered the Department in 1855, and Mr. Garthwaite in 1857. Their official careers had been bound up with the progress of education in this province. As officers of the Educational Department, they commanded the respect of all sections of the community and they carried with them to their retirement the best wishes of the people among whom they worked."

The new Circles were constituted as follows :—

Circle.	Districts.	Head Quarters.
Northern Circle.	{ Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godaveri, Kistna and Kurnool.	} Rajahmundry.
Central Do.	{ Madras, Nellore, Chin- gleput, Bellary, Cud- dapah, Anantapur, N. Arcot and S. Arcot.	} Madras.
Southern Do. }	Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Tinnevely, Coimbatore, Nilgiris and Salem.	} Coimbatore.
Western Do.	Malabar and S. Canara.	Calicut.

Nine Assistant Inspectorships, designated Divisions were created under the new scheme as noted below :—

Division.	Districts.	Head Quarters.
1st Division.	Ganjam and Vizagapatam.	Vizagapatam.
2nd Do.	Godaveri.	Rajahmundry.
3rd Do.	Kistna and Kurnool.	Masulipatam.
4th Do. }	Nellore, Madras and Chin- gleput.	} Madras.
5th Do. }	Bellary, Anantapur and Cuddapah.	} Bellary.
6th Do.	S. Arcot and N. Arcot ...	Vellore.
7th Do. }	Coimbatore, Nilgiris and Salem.	} Coimbatore.
8th Do.	Tanjore and Trichinopoly.	Tanjore.
9th Do.	Madura and Tinnevely ...	Madura.

The newly created 58 Sub-Assistant Inspectorships were divided into four classes—

	RS.
8 First Class Sub-Assistants on	150
12 Second Class Do.	125
26 Third Class Do.	100
12 Probationary Do.	75

Of the 58 Sub-Assistants, 53 were in charge of Boys' schools and 5 in charge of Girls' schools. In 1889-90, a Code of Rules to regulate the work of Superintendents of Schools in the Agency Tracts was drawn up and approved by Government. The Secretary of State accorded his sanction in September 1890 to the proposal submitted by Dr. Duncan to revise the scale of pay of the two Inspectresses of Girls' Schools. Mr. Grigg drew up a complete Code of Rules applicable to Inspecting Officers in 1891, and this was generally approved by Government in G. O. No. 668, dated 22nd August 1891, but pending the revision of the Grant-in-aid Code and other charges contemplated in the establishment of Inspecting Officers, the Code was not promulgated immediately after the sanction of Government. Mr. Bickle, a veteran Educational officer, retired from service on the 6th May 1892. Dr. Duncan in his report on Public Instruction for 1892-93 thus speaks of this officer's work :—" I take this opportunity to place on record my high appreciation of the faithful service rendered to the department by Mr. Bickle during the long period of nearly 35 years. He entered the service in 1857 and took a most prominent part in the organization of the Madras Normal School which has since grown into the Teachers' College. From 1877 till his retirement he was connected with the Inspection branch of the service, and looking back upon his work in that capacity, I regard him as one of the most conscientious, painstaking and

judicious Inspecting Officers this department has ever had." In 1892, Dr. Duncan submitted a revised scheme for the complete reorganization of the superior services in the Educational Department to which reference is made elsewhere.

Moral Education.

An important Circular of the Government of India, regarding the recommendations made by the Education Commission, for an improved system and method of school and collegiate education was issued in December 1887.* "It cannot be denied," said the Government of India in that Circular, "that the general extension in India of education has in some measure resulted in the growth of tendencies unfavourable to discipline and favourable to irreverence in the rising generation. Such tendencies are probably inseparable from that emancipation of thought which is one of the most noticeable results of our educational system. But though inevitable under the circumstances of this country, they are nevertheless, it will be admitted, tendencies which need control and direction, so far as control and direction can be supplied by a judicious system of scholastic discipline and of such moral training as our policy of strict neutrality on religious matters enable us to apply." This Circular was communicated to all Inspectors and heads of important institutions, who were invited to give their views on the questions raised by the Government of India. There was a consensus of opinion as regard the need for the adoption of some practical measures to improve the existing state of things, though there was much difference of opinion as to the extent to which the tendency towards irreverence and disregard of authority was prevalent in this Province. Dr. Duncan, in an able Memorandum,† while admitting the imperfections of the educational system of the

* *Vide* Appendix H.

† *Vide* Appendix I.

day, protested against the view that schools and colleges were largely instrumental in bringing about the state of things complained of. The proposal to introduce definite moral instructions in schools and colleges did not receive much support from educationists. Mr. Grigg, in his letter to Government, No. 3,187, dated 6th April 1889, contained in G. O. No. 420, Educational, dated 16th July 1889, made several practical suggestions most of which were given effect to. The Government of India laid the greatest stress on the necessity for providing efficient Training Colleges for Teachers and for the employment only of trained teachers. The Teachers' College was strengthened by additions to its staff and was later on reorganized on a wider basis with a view to its supplying a larger number of qualified teachers, for teaching not only literary but also scientific subjects. The transfer of Board Normal Schools to departmental management may also be regarded as the outcome of the Resolution of the Government of India. Mr. Grigg also addressed Government as to the details of the scheme of recognition that should be adopted with reference to schools receiving aid under the salary results system or sending up pupils for public examinations, with the view of making the system of recognition stricter than before. This scheme came into force fully in connection with the Educational Rules.

From the very commencement of his administration Mr. Grigg turned his attention to the subject of physical education. He was chiefly instrumental in bringing into existence the Physical Training and Field Game Association in the year 1881. In the Grant-in-Aid Code of 1885, special scholarships were provided to induce young men to undergo training to qualify for the post of Gymnastic instructors in schools

and colleges. During his administration, therefore, a marked advance took place not only in forming gymnasia and in introducing regular gymnastic instruction in most schools, but also in promoting amongst pupils a love of out-door games, such as cricket, badminton, and lawn tennis. All the leading institutions in Madras and most of those in the country have specially qualified gymnastic instructors. Grants have been sanctioned when applied for for the entertainment of instructors and also for the requisite apparatus. The gymnasia already opened have worked on the whole satisfactorily, and in some parts of the country a real love of athletic exercises seems to be springing up among pupils in schools. Forrests' Hand-book of Gymnastics has been translated into the vernaculars with a view to its introduction into the elementary schools. A manual of indigenous exercises for use in Village schools has also been prepared by one of the officers of the department. Even in girls' schools, drill, calisthenics and school songs are being regularly introduced. Writing in 1887 Mr. Grigg said:—"I am glad to notice that the importance of physical training is now being more fully recognized by the managers of all important institutions and to some extent by the native public. Their leading men are beginning to admit that, if their sons are not to suffer in after life from the strain of years of study, they must insist upon due attention being paid to healthful exercises, but I fear a generation must pass before this truth becomes generally accepted as an article of educational faith. To attain this end the encouragement afforded must be constant and liberal for years to come. Open-air games, such as cricket and lawn-tennis, are also becoming popular with students, more especially in Madras and in other large towns where the European teachers take a personal interest in physical education." The Educational Rules make

the provision for physical education in schools a condition of recognition.

The total expenditure on public instructions in the Presidency advanced from Rs. 3,107,712 to in 1880-81 to Rs. 6,094,484 in 1892-93. The gross expenditure of Rs. 6,094,484 was made up of the following sources :—

Finance of
Education.

From Provincial Revenues Rs. 18,43,904; from Local Funds Rs. 7,69,777; from Municipal Funds Rs. 2,18,744; from fees Rs. 18,43,276 and from all other sources Rs. 14,18,183. The total cost of Government institutions in 1892-93 amounted to Rs. 8,36,288 and the net cost was Rs. 6,70,032. The total cost of Board schools was Rs. 9,12,948 in 1892-93, the net cost to Local Boards and Municipal Councils being Rs. 5,17,399. The total cost of Aided institutions under private management was Rs. 20,61,270. The statement below gives the expenditure on Grants-in-aid from 1881-82 to 1892-93.

Grants-in-aid.

Year.	Grants from Provincial Funds.	Grants from Local Funds.	Grants from Municipal Funds.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1881-82	2,60,934	2,53,819	43,768	5,58,521
1882-83	3,31,951	3,01,099	59,115	6,92,165
1883-84	3,47,913	2,83,095	74,926	7,05,934
1884-85	4,10,440	2,76,938	1,01,677	7,89,055
1885-86	3,73,904	2,59,100	1,04,881	8,37,885
1886-87	4,47,454	1,99,100	91,217	7,37,771
1887-88	4,89,405	1,97,346	90,146	7,76,897
1888-89	4,17,759	2,05,533	95,435	7,18,727
1889-90	5,02,538	2,02,257	88,751	7,93,546
1890-91	6,40,341	2,18,520	99,190	9,58,051
1891-92	6,33,029	2,24,358	96,401	9,53,788
1892-93	6,15,727	2,32,505	1,01,852	9,50,084

The particulars of the entire expenditure on Provincial Funds on Grants-in-aid for the years 1881-82 and 1892-93 are compared below :—

Grants from Provincial Funds.	1881-82.	1892-93.
(1) <i>Grants to schools under private management.</i>	RS.	RS.
Salary and Rent Grants	1,50,908	2,57,820
Scholarship Grants	8,759	28,708
Building Grants	7,418	23,436
Furniture, Library and other Grants.	3,612	10,089
Feeding and Clothing Grants ...	1,884*	10,245
Grants to Eleemosynary Schools and		
Miscellaneous Grants	1,801	1,372
Payment by Results	78,623	1,40,600
Total ...	2,53,005	4,72,270
(2) <i>Grants to Board schools.</i>		
Salary and other Grants to Local		
Boards and Municipalities ...	7,929	1,43,457
Grand Total...	2,60,934,	6,15,727

The total fee receipts from institutions, public and private, advanced from Rs. 9,105,505 to Rs. 17,27,958 whilst the total attendance during the same period increased from 3,93,683 to 7,34,404. The fee Notification of 1884, which was revised in 1887, has been superseded by the Notification introduced on the 1st January 1892. According to the last Notification the rates of fees and the mode of levying them are left to the discretion of the Managers.

Dr. Duncan
on Mr. Grigg's
Administra-
tion.

Dr. Duncan in his Report on Public Instruction for the year 1892-93, thus summarizes the important reforms effected during Mr. Grigg's administration :—

“ Mr. Grigg's connection with the Department having ceased in November last (1892) on his appointment

* This represents grants on account of fees for poor European and Eurasian children.

to the British Resident in Travancore and Cochin, the present seems a suitable occasion for giving a brief *resumé* of the many important reforms which he introduced into all branches of the educational department in the course of his successful administration extending over twelve years, during nine of which he was in immediate charge of the office. Anticipating the recommendations of the Education Commission, he set himself at an early period of his administration to the task of withdrawing gradually from the direct management of higher education, wherever he could find private individuals or Committees or Local Boards able and willing to carry on the work. In doing so he was carrying out the measures which, as a Member of the Committee appointed to deal with the question of Local self-Government, he was mainly instrumental in devising. A consequence of these measures was the transfer to District Municipalities of the responsibility of providing for the Upper Primary and Lower Secondary education of boys living within their jurisdiction. In every case Mr. Grigg did his best to secure as much aid to these public bodies as the funds at his disposal would admit of. In Mr. Grigg the managers of Aided institutions always found a sympathetic adviser and a liberal dispenser of the public funds. The Grant-in-aid Code was subjected to a thorough revision in 1885. The revised Code, which is still in force, was drawn up in the most generous spirit, there being hardly any form of educational effort which does not receive encouragement and a promise of help from its provisions. The European and Eurasian communities owe him a debt of gratitude for the services he rendered them as a Member of the Committee appointed to enquire into their educational condition, and for his constant watchfulness over their interests as exhibited in the provisions of the Grant-in-aid

Code and in Proceedings issued from time to time. While ever mindful of the interests of Collegiate education, as far as these interests could be promoted by measures and money, Mr. Grigg threw himself at an early period with characteristic zeal and energy into the task of promoting primary instruction. The Primary School Examination is not yet a very ancient institution, but it has been in existence long enough to show that it is fitted to give an enormous impetus to elementary instruction. Whatever may be said on general principles against the institution of a public examination at this stage of education, there can, I think, be no doubt that, the conditions being as they are in Southern India, the Primary School Examination is a powerful instrument for the spread of the elements of knowledge among the people. The Upper Secondary Examination, in which Mr. Grigg was deeply interested, has not proved a success, notwithstanding that it is one of the main passports for admission into the public service. This is, however, the less to be regretted, inasmuch as this examination, unlike the Primary School Examination, covers ground already occupied by long-standing examinations. Mr. Grigg's administration of the Department is memorable as coinciding with the first serious and systematic attempt to grapple with the great question of technical education. The broad outlines were first sketched in a letter to Government, in which he also showed the necessity of providing for the highest scientific instruction being available in a few of the foremost of the Arts Colleges. The immediate result of this was the creation of Chairs of Biology in the Presidency and Madras Christian Colleges. For industrial and technical education proper, an elaborate scheme was drawn up, which received its final embodiment in the Notification regulating the Higher Examination in Science, Art, In-

dustries and Commerce, and in the syllabuses prepared by experts for the different subjects. It is sometimes said that the technical scheme was merely a scheme of examinations. But such a statement indicates a very partial conception of what Mr. Grigg attempted to do and to some extent succeeded in doing. Not only did he enlarge the scope and improve the efficiency of the Government institutions devoted to industrial and technical subjects, but he also added a special chapter to the Grant-in-aid Code to enable him to help managers to obtain qualified teachers, commodious buildings, and suitable machinery and appliances. That the financial aid he gave under this chapter of the Code was not greater was due entirely to the limited funds at his disposal. Physical training always found a warm supporter in Mr. Grigg, and the growth of a healthy love for out-door games, which is such a remarkable feature of school and college life at the present day, is largely due to his fostering care and generous encouragement. He was the leading spirit in the movement which in 1881 led to the formation of the Physical Training and Field Games Association. Both as Vice-President of this Association and in his capacity as Director he had no small share in the working of the Gymnastic Training class held for so many years in the People's Park. In the Grant-in-aid Code of 1885 special scholarships were provided to induce young men to undergo training to qualify for the post of Gymnastic instructors in schools and colleges. The interests of female education always occupied a foremost place in his regards. Appreciating to the full the benefits which Female education had reaped from the appointment of an Inspectress of Girls' schools, Mr. Grigg early entertained the idea of getting a second Inspectress, so that all Girls' schools throughout the Presidency

should enjoy the same advantages as were enjoyed by the Girls' schools in the Presidency towns and the neighbouring districts. This important measure, the first step in which was taken by the late Major-General Macdonald and the second by Mr. Grigg, has been the turning point in the history of Female education in Southern India. The great advance that has been made will be appreciated when it is remembered that, on the 31st March 1880, the number of girls at school was only 29,282, whereas on the 31st March 1892 it had risen to 98,471. With a view to raise the status of teachers, Mr. Grigg was largely instrumental in moving the University to institute the degree of Licentiate of Teaching. The staff and accommodation of the Teachers' College were improved with a view to meet the growing demand for teachers of all grades. Aided Training Schools he always treated as having a first claim on public funds. In 1887 Mr. Grigg submitted proposals for the re-organization of the Inspectorate. These, after having received the sanction of the Secretary of State, were introduced in 1888. A new class of officers, under the designation of Assistant Inspectors, was created, with a view to relieve the Inspectors of the charge of Lower Secondary Schools. The importance of providing a body of Inspecting Schoolmasters—a subordinate agency specially designed for the improvement and extension of elementary schools, both public and private—early received his attention. A Code of Rules was drawn up to regulate their work, a graded scale of salaries was recommended for adoption to the Local Boards and Municipal Councils employing them, and Government was urged to make their work more attractive and efficient by taking all these men into Provincial service. To Mr. Grigg belongs also the credit of having introduced a system of 'recognition' which does for schools what 'affiliation' does for colleges.

For a time recognition was looked upon with little favour by many managers, who saw in it only a device to facilitate departmental interference with the internal economy of schools. But thanks to the teachings of experience and the hearty co-operation of managers, the objectionable features of the system have been gradually removed, and recognition is now regarded as one of the best safeguards which long established and well-conducted schools have against ill-conducted adventure schools."

The Government of Madras in the review of Dr. Duncan's report refer in the following terms to Mr. Grigg's successful administration:—"Mr. H.'B. Grigg's connection with the Educational Department having been severed in November 1892, Dr. Duncan has appropriately taken the opportunity to incorporate with his report a brief summary of the more important reforms effected by that officer during the course of his twelve years' administration. His Excellency the Governor in Council has read Dr. Duncan's remarks with interest and desires to place on record his high appreciation of Mr. Grigg's energy, devotion and success. He has imparted a strong stimulus to education in this Presidency and the efforts of his labour for the improvement of the people will be lasting and profound."

In May 1885, Dr. Duncan, M. A., D. Sc., then Principal of the Presidency College, was for the first time appointed to act as the Head of the Educational Department. Between May 1885 and November 1892, he was called upon to fill the office of Director of Public Instruction six times, covering an aggregate period of over three years and two months, and on the 9th November 1892 he was confirmed in the appointment. The first time he acted was for a short period of three months. It was during this time that the Grant-in-

Dr. Duncan's
administra-
tion.

aid Code, revised by a representative Committee, was sanctioned by Government and introduced with effect from the 1st June 1885. During the second time Dr. Duncan held office, the duty of submitting to Government the comprehensive scheme for the development of Technical Education, which was elaborated by a number of experts under the presidency of Mr. Grigg, devolved on him, and the modifications introduced by him in the Notification relating to the Technical Examinations received the approval of Government. The third period of his acting tenure extended over but three months, from the 16th January to 15th April 1890, when a fresh Code of rules for the management of the Teachers' College was issued. In November 1889 a Committee was appointed for the Revision of the Standing Orders of the Department, with Dr. Duncan as President, and the result of its labours was the framing of a Code of rules known as the Educational Rules, which took the place of the Standing Orders. The School Fee Notification of January 1887, which had been drawn up by a representative Conference and sanctioned by Government with certain modifications for a period of five years, was subjected to further revision towards the close of 1891. After mature and careful consideration, Government accepted Dr. Duncan's important suggestion that the School Fee Notification should be binding only on institutions under public management, while institutions under private management—both aided and unaided—should be left unfettered by any departmental regulations either as to the levy of a rigid scale of fees or as to the manner in which fees are to be levied. From 1890 to May 1891, a Committee appointed by Government, with Dr. Duncan as President, sat to reconsider the curriculum of the College of Agriculture, and the practical suggestions made by this Committee

received the final approval of Government. In December 1891 three additional sections to regulate the work of Training institutions under public and private management and the conduct of the examinations for Teachers' certificates were drafted. Opportunity was taken to designate Teachers' certificates and Training institutions of the several grades with reference to the minimum general educational qualifications required of candidates for admission into the several grades of Training institutions. Experience having been gained of the working of the Technical Examination Notifications of 1886, it was considered necessary to introduce certain radical changes into the Notification and the syllabuses relating to these examinations and, towards the close of 1892, these were accordingly revised with the assistance of experts specially selected for the purpose. On receipt of the sanction of Government for the revised Technical Examination scheme, a revised curriculum in four standards for art and industrial schools, was prepared and submitted to Government and this was approved by Government and embodied as a portion of Section V. of the Educational Rules. The Lower Secondary Examination, which had been substituted for the old Middle School Examination and which at first was conducted like the Primary Examination by district Committees, was not found popular owing to the absence of any approach to uniformity of standard, and a revised scheme for the conduct of this examination almost on the lines of the old Middle School Examination was accordingly drawn up and came into force in 1893. The Upper Secondary Examination having proved a failure, the revision of its scheme was undertaken, and most of the proposals made for its amendment were adopted by Government. Almost simultaneously, the Primary Examination Notification, the Public Service Notification, and the Notification relating to

the Special Test Examinations were thoroughly revised and submitted to Government before he proceeded to Europe on furlough in September 1893. Several other important subjects also engaged the attention of the Director during 1893. The Grant-in-aid Code was thoroughly revised, recast and simplified. The unsatisfactory working of the estimate system under which results grants were paid, having formed the subject of frequent comment, advantage was taken of the revision of the Code to replace the *estimate* system by what is known as the *assignment* system. This system, unlike its predecessor, provides for the fixing of results grants to each school with reference to the net cost of the school and the funds at the disposal of the sanctioning authority, so that no school will in future be allowed to make a profit out of State aid, while schools in backward localities and schools for backward classes will receive more liberal treatment than under the old Code. Final proposals for the reorganization of the European, Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services were also matured and laid before Government before Dr. Duncan's departure on furlough. They have not been sanctioned as yet, though care was taken to frame the new scale so as not to involve any additional expenditure to Government. When the new scheme is sanctioned, the distinction between the scholastic, inspection and clerical branches of the service, will disappear, and young men of good talents may, it is hoped, be induced to begin service in the lower ranks. As President of the Committee for the examination of candidates for the Provincial Civil Service, Dr. Duncan framed a set of rules for the conduct of the above examination annually. The wretched accommodation, the inferior staff and the scanty supply of furniture provided for most of the so-called 'poor' schools in the city of Madras led to proposals being made to

Government for relieving the Municipality of the liability of grants for girls in all poor schools up to the Third Standard, the Municipality being required to utilize the savings in remedying the above drawbacks.

With a view to meet the demand of the Northern Circars for trained Telugu graduate and undergraduate teachers, the sanction of Government was obtained for the constitution of a Training College at Rajahmundry as a branch of the Rajahmundry College, and the Union High School and the Branch Middle schools in the town were taken over by the Department and constituted the Practising branch of the Training College. The scheme did not entail any additional cost on Government, the increased expenditure having been met partly from increased fee receipts, partly from savings under other heads. This brief sketch of the various important measures of beneficial reform which have been inaugurated during Dr. Duncan's administration of the Department cannot be more fittingly concluded than by a reference to the steps and concessions recommended by him and sanctioned by Government for the education of Paraiyas and the kindred classes, whom it was proposed to designate 'Panchamas,' for the sake of brevity and convenience of reference. The social amelioration of these down-trodden classes will be greatly facilitated by the spread of elementary education among them which the steps recently advocated may surely be expected to bring about within the next few years.



APPENDIX A.

MINUTE BY MR. MACAULAY.

2nd February, 1835.

As it seems to be the opinion of some of the gentlemen, who compose the Committee of Public Instruction, that the course which they have hitherto pursued was strictly prescribed by the British Parliament in 1813, and as, if that opinion be correct, a legislative Act will be necessary to warrant a change, I have thought it right to refrain from taking any part in the preparation of the adverse statements which are now before us, and to reserve what I had to say on the subject till it should come before me as a member of the Council of India.

It does not appear to me that the Act of Parliament can, by any art of construction, be made to bear the meaning which has been assigned to it. It contains nothing about the particular languages or sciences which are to be studied. A sum is set apart 'for the revival and promotion of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories.' It is argued, or rather taken for granted, that by literature the Parliament can have meant only Arabic and Sanscrit literature, that they never would have given the honorable appellation of 'a learned native' to a native who was familiar with the poetry of Milton, the Metaphysics of Locke, and the Physics of Newton; but that they meant to designate by that name only such persons as might have studied in the sacred books of the Hindoos all the uses of cusa-grass, and all the mysteries of absorption into the Deity. This does not appear to be a very satisfactory interpretation. To take a parallel case; suppose that the Pacha of Egypt, a country once superior in knowledge to the nations of Europe, but now sunk far below them, were to appropriate a sum for the purpose of 'reviving and promoting literature, and encouraging learned natives of Egypt,' would any body infer that he meant the youth of his pachalic to give years to the study of hieroglyphics, to search into all the doctrines disguised under the fable of Osiris, and to ascertain with all possible accuracy the ritual with which cats and onions were anciently adored? Would he be justly charged with inconsistency, if instead of employing his young subjects in deciphering obelisks, he were to order them to be instructed in the English and French languages, and in all the sciences to which those languages are the chief keys?

The words on which the supporters of the old system rely do not bear them out, and other words follow which seem to be quite decisive on the other side. This lac of Rupees is set apart, not only for 'reviving literature in India,' the phrase on which their own interpretation is founded, but also for the introduction and pro-

motion of a knowledge of the science among the inhabitants of the British territories,—words which are alone sufficient to authorise all the changes for which I contend.

If the Council agree in my construction, no legislative Act will be necessary. If they differ from me I will prepare a short Act rescinding that clause of the Charter of 1813, from which the difficulty arises.

The argument which I have been considering, affects only the form of proceeding. But the admirers of the Oriental system of education have used another argument, which, if we admit it to be valid, is decisive against all change. They conceive that the public faith is pledged to the present system, and that to alter the appropriation of any of the funds which have hitherto been spent in encouraging the study of Arabic and Sanscrit, would be downright spoliation. It is not easy to understand by what process of reasoning they can have arrived at this conclusion. The grants which are made from the public purse for the encouragement of literature differed in no respect from the grants which are made from the same purse for other objects of real or supposed utility. We found a sanatorium on a spot which we suppose to be healthy. Do we thereby pledge ourselves to keep a sanatorium there, if the result should not answer our expectation? We commence the erection of a pier. Is it a violation of the public faith to stop the works, if we afterwards see reason to believe that the building will be useless? The rights of property are undoubtedly sacred. But nothing endangers those rights so much as the practice, now unhappily too common, of attributing them to things to which they do not belong. Those who would impart to abuses the sanctity of property are in truth imparting to the institution of property the unpopularity and the fragility of abuses. If the Government has given to any person a formal assurance; nay, if the Government has excited in any person's mind a reasonable expectation that he shall receive a certain income as a teacher or a learner of Sanscrit or Arabic, I would respect that person's pecuniary interests—I would rather err on the side of liberality to individuals than suffer the public faith to be called in question. But to talk of a Government pledging itself to teach certain languages and certain sciences, though those languages may become useless, though those sciences may be exploded, seems to me quite unmeaning. There is not a single word in any public instructions, from which it can be inferred that the Indian Government ever intended to give any pledge on this subject, or ever considered the destination of these funds as unalterably fixed. But had it been otherwise, I should have denied the competence of our predecessors to bind us by any pledge on such a subject. Suppose that a Government had in the last century enacted in the most solemn manner that all its subjects should, to the end of time, be inoculated for the small-pox: would that Government be bound to persist in the practice after Jenner's discovery? These promises, of which nobody claims the performance, and from which nobody can grant a release; these vested rights, which vest in nobody; this property without proprietors; this robbery which makes nobody poorer, may be comprehended by persons of higher faculties than mine.—I consider this plea merely as a set form of words, regularly used both in

England and in India, in defence of every abuse for which no other plea can be set up.

I hold this lac of rupees to be quite at the disposal of the Governor-General in Council, for the purpose of promoting learning in India, in any way which may be thought most advisable. I hold his Lordship to be quite as free to direct that it shall no longer be employed in encouraging Arabic and Sanscrit, as he is to direct that the reward for killing tigers in Mysore shall be diminished, or that no more public money shall be expended on the chanting at the cathedral.

We now come to the gist of the matter. We have a fund to be employed as Government shall direct for the intellectual improvement of the people of this country. The simple question is, what is the most useful way of employing it?

All parties seem to be agreed on one point, that the dialects commonly spoken among the natives of this part of India, contain neither literary nor scientific information, and are, moreover, so poor and rude that, until they are enriched from some other quarter, it will not be easy to translate any valuable work into them. It seems to be admitted on all sides, that the intellectual improvement of those classes of the people who have the means of pursuing higher studies can at present be effected only by means of some language not vernacular amongst them.

What then shall that language be? One-half of the Committee maintain that it should be the English. The other half strongly recommend the Arabic and Sanscrit. The whole question seems to me to be, which language is the best worth knowing?

I have no knowledge of either Sanscrit or Arabic.—But I have done what I could to form a correct estimate of their value. I have read translations of the most celebrated Arabic and Sanscrit works. I have conversed both here and at home with men distinguished by their proficiency in the Eastern tongues. I am quite ready to take the oriental learning at the valuation of the Orientalists themselves. I have never found one among them who could deny that a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia. The intrinsic superiority of the Western literature is indeed fully admitted by those members of the Committee who support the Oriental plan of education.

It will hardly be disputed, I suppose, that the department of literature in which the eastern writers stand highest is poetry. And I certainly never met with any Orientalist who ventured to maintain that the Arabic and Sanscrit poetry could be compared to that of the great European nations. But when we pass from works of imagination to works in which facts are recorded, and general principles investigated, the superiority of the Europeans becomes absolutely immeasurable. It is, I believe, no exaggeration to say, that all the historical information which has been collected from all the books written in the Sanscrit language is less valuable than what may be found in the most paltry abridgments used at preparatory schools in England. In every branch of physical or moral philosophy, the relative position of the two nations is nearly the same.

How, then stands the case? We have to educate a people who cannot at present be educated by means of their mother-tongue. We must teach them some foreign language. The claims of our own language it is hardly necessary to recapitulate. It stands pre-eminent even among the languages of the west. It abounds with works of imagination not inferior to the noblest which Greece has bequeathed to us; with models of every species of eloquence; with historical composition, which, considered merely as narratives, have seldom been surpassed, and which, considered as vehicles of ethical and political instruction, have never been equalled; with just and lively representations of human life and human nature; with the most profound speculations on metaphysics, morals, government, jurisprudence, and trade; with full and correct information respecting every experimental science which tends to preserve the health, to increase the comfort, or to expand the intellect of man. Whoever knows that language has ready access to all the vast intellectual wealth which, all the wisest nations of the earth have created and hoarded in the course of ninety generations. It may safely be said, that the literature now extant in that language is of far greater value than all the literature which three hundred years ago was extant in all the languages of the world together. Nor is this all. In India, English is the language spoken by the ruling class. It is spoken by the higher class of natives at the seats of Government. It is likely to become the language of commerce throughout the seas of the East. It is the language of two great European communities which are rising, the one in the South of Africa, the other in Australasia; communities which are every year becoming more important, and more closely connected with our Indian empire. Whether we look at the intrinsic value of our literature, or at the particular situation of this country, we shall see the strongest reason to think that, of all foreign tongues, the English tongue is that which would be the most useful to our native subjects.

The question now before us is simply whether, when it is in our power to teach this language, we shall teach languages in which, by universal confession, there are no books on any subject which deserve to be compared to our own; whether, when we can teach European science, we shall teach systems which, by universal confession, whenever they differ from those of Europe, differ for the worse; and whether, when we can patronise sound Philosophy and true History, we shall countenance, at the public expense, medical doctrines, which would disgrace an English farrier;—Astronomy, which would move laughter in girls at an English boarding school,—History, abounding with kings thirty feet high, and reigns thirty thousand years long,—and Geography, made up of seas of treacle and seas of butter.

We are not without experience to guide us. History furnishes several analogous cases, and they all teach the same lesson. There are in modern times, to go no further, two memorable instances of a great impulse given to the mind of a whole society,—of prejudices overthrown,—of knowledge diffused,—of taste purified,—of arts and sciences planted in countries which had recently been ignorant and barbarous.

The first instances to which I refer, is the great revival of letters among the Western nations at the close of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth

century. At that time almost every thing that was worth reading was contained in the writings of the ancient Greeks and Romans. Had our ancestors acted as the committee of Public Instruction has hitherto acted; had they neglected the language of Cicero and Tacitus; had they confined their attention to the old dialects of our own island; had they printed nothing and taught nothing at the universities but Chronicles in Anglo-Saxon, and Romances in Norman-French, would England have been what she now is? What the Greek and Latin were to the contemporaries of More and Ascham, our tongue is to the people of India. The literature of England is now more valuable than that of classical antiquity. I doubt whether the Sanscrit literature be as valuable as that of our Saxon and Norman progenitors. In some departments,—in History, for example, I am certain that it is much less so.

“Another instance may be said to be still before our eyes. Within the last hundred and twenty years, a nation which had previously been in a state as barbarous as that in which our ancestors were before the crusades, has gradually emerged from the ignorance in which it was sunk, and has taken its place among civilized communities.—I speak of Russia. There is now in that country a large educated class, abounding with persons fit to serve the state in the highest functions, and in no wise inferior to the most accomplished men who adorn the best circles of Paris and London. There is reason to hope that this vast empire, which in the time of our grand-fathers was probably behind the Punjab, may, in the time of our grandchildren, be pressing close on France and Britain in the career of improvement. And how was this change effected? Not by flattering national prejudices: not by feeding the mind of the young Muscovite with the old woman’s stories which his rude fathers had believed: not by filling his head with lying legends about St. Nicholas: not by encouraging him to study the great question, whether the world was or was not created on the 13th of September: not by calling him ‘a learned native,’ when he has mastered all these points of knowledge: but by teaching him those foreign languages in which the greatest mass of information had been laid up, and thus putting all that information within his reach. The languages of Western Europe civilized Russia. I cannot doubt that they will do for the Hindoo what they have done for the Tartar.

“And what are the arguments against that course which seems to be alike recommended by theory and by experience? It is said that we ought to secure the co-operation of the native public, and that we can do this only by teaching Sanscrit and Arabic.

“I can by no means admit that when a nation of high intellectual attainments undertakes to superintend the education of a nation comparatively ignorant, the learners are absolutely to prescribe the course which is to be taken by the teachers. It is not necessary, however, to say any thing on this subject. For it is proved by unanswerable evidence that we are not at present securing the co-operation of the natives. It would be bad enough to consult their intellectual taste at the expense of their intellectual health. But we are consulting neither,—we are withholding from them the learning for which they are craving, we are forcing on them the mock-learning which they nauseate.

This is proved by the fact that we are forced to pay our Arabic, and Sanscrit students, while those who learn English are willing to pay us. All the declamations in the world about the love and reverence of the natives for their sacred dialects will never, in the mind of any impartial person, outweigh the undisputed fact, that we cannot find, in all our vast empire, a single student who will let us teach him those dialects unless we will pay him.

I have now before me the accounts of the Madrasa for one month,—the month of December, 1833. The Arabic students appear to have been seventy-seven in number. All receive stipends from the public. The whole amount paid to them is above 500 rupees a month. On the other side of the account stands the following item. “Deduct amount realized from the outstudents of English for the months of May, June and July last, 103 rupees.”

I have been told that it is merely from want of local experience that I am surprised at these phenomena, and that it is not the fashion for students in India to study at their own charges. This only confirms me in my opinion. Nothing is more certain than that it never can in any part of the world be necessary to pay men for doing what they think pleasant and profitable. India is no exception to this rule. The people of India do not require to be paid for eating rice when they are hungry, or for wearing woollen cloth in the cold season. To come nearer to the case before us, the children who learn their letters and a little elementary Arithmetic from the village school-master are not paid by him. He is paid for teaching them. Why then is it necessary to pay people to learn Sanscrit and Arabic? Evidently because it is universally felt that the Sanscrit and Arabic are languages, the knowledge of which does not compensate for the trouble of acquiring them. On all such subjects the state of the market is the decisive test.

Other evidence is not wanting, if other evidence were required. A petition was presented last year to the Committee by several ex-students of the Sanscrit College. The petitioners stated that they had studied in the college ten or twelve years; that they had made themselves acquainted with Hindu literature and science; that they had received certificates of proficiency: and what is the fruit of all this! ‘Notwithstanding such testimonials,’ they say, ‘we have but little prospect of bettering our condition without the kind assistance of your Honorable Committee, the indifference with which we are generally looked upon by our countrymen leaving no hope of encouragement and assistance from them.’ They therefore beg that they may be recommended to the Governor-General for places under the Government, not places of high dignity or emolument, but such as may just enable them to exist. ‘We want means,’ they say, ‘for a decent living, and for our progressive improvement, which, however, we cannot obtain without the assistance of Government, by whom we have been educated and maintained from childhood.’ They conclude by representing, very pathetically, that they are sure that it was never the intention of Government, after behaving so liberally to them during their education, to abandon them to destitution and neglect.

I have been used to see petitions to Government for compensation. All these petitions, even the most unreasonable of them, proceeded on the supposition that

some loss had been sustained,—that some wrong had been inflicted. These are surely the first petitioners who ever demanded compensation for having been educated gratis,—for having been supported by the public during twelve years, and then sent forth into the world well furnished with literature and science. They represent their education as an injury which gives them a claim on the Government for redress, as an injury for which the stipends paid to them during the infliction were a very inadequate compensation. And I doubt not that they are in the right. They have wasted the best years of life in learning what procures for them neither bread nor respect. Surely we might, with advantage, have saved the cost of making these persons useless and miserable; surely men may be brought up to be burdens to the public and objects of contempt to their neighbours at a somewhat smaller charge to the state. But such is our policy. We do not even stand neuter in the contest between truth and falsehood. We are not content to leave the natives to the influence of their own hereditary prejudices. To the natural difficulties which obstruct the progress of sound science in the East, we add fresh difficulties of our own making. Bounties and premiums, such as ought not to be given even for the propagation of truth, we lavish on false taste and false philosophy.

By acting thus we create the very evil which we fear. We are making that opposition which we do not find. What we spend on the Arabic and Sanskrit colleges is not merely a dead loss to the cause of truth; it is bounty-money paid to raise up champions of error. It goes to form a nest, not merely of helpless place-hunters, but of bigots, prompted alike by passion and by interest to raise a cry against every useful scheme of education. If there should be any opposition among the natives to the change which I recommend, that opposition will be the effect of our own system. It will be headed by persons supported by our stipends and trained in our colleges. The longer we persevere in our present course, the more formidable will that opposition be. It will be every year reinforced by recruits whom we are paying. From the native society left to itself, we have no difficulties to apprehend; all the murmuring will come from that oriental interest which we have, by artificial means, called into being, and nursed into strength.

There is yet another fact, which is alone sufficient to prove that the feeling of the native public, when left to itself, is not such as the supporters of the old system represent it to be. The Committee have thought fit to lay out above a lac of rupees in printing Arabic and Sanscrit books. Those books find no purchasers. It is very rarely that a single copy is disposed of. Twenty-three thousand volumes, most of them folios and quartos, fill the libraries, or rather the lumber-rooms, of this body. The Committee contrive to get rid of some portion of their vast stock of oriental literature by giving books away. But they cannot give so fast as they print. About twenty thousand rupees a year are spent in adding fresh masses of waste paper to a hoard which, I should think, is already sufficiently ample. During the last three years, about sixty thousand rupees have been expended in this manner. The sale of Arabic and Sanscrit books, during those three years, has not yielded quite one thousand rupees. In the mean time the School-book Society is selling seven or eight thousand English volumes every year, and not only pays the expenses of printing, but realises a profit of 20 per cent. on its outlay.

The fact that the Hindoo law is to be learned chiefly from Sanscrit books, and the Mahomedan law from Arabic books, has been much insisted on, but seems not to bear at all on the question. We are commanded by Parliament to ascertain and digest the laws of India. The assistance of a Law Commission has been given to us for that purpose. As soon as the code is promulgated, the Shasters and the Hedaya will be useless to a Moonsiff or Sudder Ameen. I hope and trust that before the boys who are now entering at the Madrassa and the Sanscrit college have completed their studies, this great work will be finished. It would be manifestly absurd to educate the rising generation with a view to a state of things which we mean to alter before they reach manhood.

But there is yet another argument which seems even more untenable. It is said that the Sanscrit and Arabic are the languages in which the sacred books of a hundred millions of people are written, and that they are, on that account, entitled to peculiar encouragement. Assuredly it is the duty of the British Government in India to be not only tolerant, neutral, on all religious questions. But to encourage the study of a literature admitted to be of small intrinsic value, only because that literature inculcates the most serious errors on the most important subjects, is a course hardly reconcileable with reason, with morality, or even with that very neutrality which ought, as we all agree, to be sacredly preserved. It is confessed that a language is barren of useful knowledge. We are to teach it because it is fruitful of monstrous superstitions. We are to teach false History, false Astronomy, false Medicine, because we find them in company with a false religion. We abstain, and I trust shall always abstain, from giving any public encouragement to those who are engaged in the work of converting natives to Christianity. And while we act thus, can we reasonably and decently bribe men out of the revenues of the state to waste their youth in learning how they are to purify themselves after touching an ass, or what text of the Vedas they are to repeat to expiate the crime of killing a goat?

It is taken for granted by the advocates of Oriental learning, that no native of this country can possibly attain more than a mere smattering of English. They do not attempt to prove this; but they perpetually insinuate it. They designate the education which their opponents recommend as a mere spelling book education. They assume it as undeniable, that the question is between a profound knowledge of Hindoo and Arabian literature and science on the one side, and a superficial knowledge of the rudiments of English on the other. This is not merely an assumption, but an assumption contrary to all reason and experience. We know that foreigners of all nations do learn our language sufficiently to have access to all the most abstruse knowledge which it contains, sufficiently to relish even the more delicate graces of our most idiomatic writers. There are in this very town natives who are quite competent to discuss political or scientific questions with fluency and precision in the English language. I have heard the very question on which I am now writing discussed by native gentlemen with a liberality and an intelligence which would do credit to any member of the Committee of Public Instruction. Indeed it is unusual to find, even in the literary circles of the continent, any foreigner

who can express himself in English with so much facility and correctness as we find in many Hindoos. No body, I suppose, will contend that English is so difficult to a Hindoo as Greek to an Englishman. Yet an intelligent English youth, in a much smaller number of years than our unfortunate pupils pass at the Sanscrit college, becomes able to read, to enjoy, and even to imitate, not unhappily the compositions of the best Greek Authors. Less than half the time which enables an English youth to read Herodotus and Sophocles, ought to enable a Hindoo to read Hume and Milton.

To sum up what I have said, I think it clear that we are not fettered by the Act of Parliament of 1813; that we are not fettered by any pledge expressed or implied; that we are free to employ our funds as we choose; that we ought to employ them in teaching what is best worth knowing; that English is better worth knowing than Sanskrit or Arabic; that the natives are desirous to be taught English, and are not desirous to be taught Sanscrit or Arabic; that neither as the languages of law, nor as the languages of religion, have the Sanscrit and Arabic any peculiar claim to our engagement; that it is possible to make natives of this country thoroughly good English scholars, and that to this end our efforts ought to be directed.

In one point I fully agree with the gentlemen to whose general views I am opposed. I feel with them, that it is impossible for us, with our limited means, to attempt to educate the body of the people. We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect. To that class we may leave it to refine the vernacular dialects of the country, to enrich those dialects with terms of science borrowed from the Western nomenclature, and to render them by degrees fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population.

I would strictly respect all existing interests. I would deal even generously with all individuals who have had fair reason to expect a pecuniary provision. But I would strike at the root of the bad system which has hitherto been fostered by us. I would at once stop the printing of Arabic and Sanscrit books, I would abolish the Madrassa and the Sanscrit college at Calcutta. Benares is the great seat of Brahmanical learning; Delhi, of Arabic learning. If we retain the Sanscrit college at Benares and the Mahometan college at Delhi, we do enough, and much more than enough in my opinion, for the Eastern languages. If the Benares and Delhi colleges should be retained, I would at least recommend that no stipends shall be given to any students who may hereafter repair thither, but that the people shall be left to make their own choice between the rival systems of education without being bribed by us to learn what they have no desire to know. The funds which would thus be placed at our disposal would enable us to give larger encouragement to the Hindoo college at Calcutta, and to establish in the principal cities throughout the Presidencies of Fort William and Agra schools in which the English language might be well and thoroughly taught.

If the decision of his Lordship in Council should be such as I anticipate, I shall enter on the performance of my duties with the greatest zeal and alacrity. If on the other hand, it be the opinion of the Government that the present system ought to remain unchanged, I beg that I may be permitted to retire from the chair of the Committee. I feel that I could not be of the smallest use there—I feel, also, that I should be lending my countenance to what I firmly believe to be a mere delusion. I believe that the present system tends, not to accelerate the progress of truth, but to delay the natural death of expiring errors. I conceive that we have at present no right to the respectable name of a Board of Public Instruction. We are a Board for wasting public money, for printing books which are of less value than the paper on which they are printed, was while it was blank; for giving artificial encouragement to absurd history, absurd metaphysics, absurd physics, absurd theology; for raising up a breed of scholars who find their scholarship an encumbrance and a blemish, who live on the public while they are receiving their education, and whose education is so utterly useless to them that when they have received it they must either starve or live on the public all the rest of their lives. Entertaining these opinions, I am naturally desirous to decline all share in the responsibility of a body, which, unless it alters its whole mode of proceeding, I must consider not merely as useless, but as positively noxious.*

T. B. MACAULAY.

2nd February. 1835.

* *Note.*—This Minute and the following Resolution have been entered here, as having set at rest the question,—at the time they were written an important one, as to what should be the character of the instruction imparted in the Government schools and colleges,—whether Oriental or European. It is a question which was never raised in Madras, but the decision of which was equally important to this Presidency as to Bengal, for if the advocates of Oriental instruction had carried their point, the Oriental system would probably have been adopted all over India.

APPENDIX B.

EDUCATION.

Minute by Mr. Thomas, 26th June 1851.

Having carefully read the Minute of the Right Honorable the President upon this most important subject, I may express my general concurrence in the views there enunciated, and I shall add, as briefly as the subject will admit, my own opinions on the question of native education generally, and, upon the best mode of carrying out a system of general instruction at this Presidency.

2. Whilst I shall state these views as briefly as practicable, I may be permitted to say that they have not been formed hastily; but that they are the result of an examination of nearly all that has been written on the subject in the other Presidencies, and of some acquaintance through many years with the working of institutions for education at this Presidency.

3. I will first express my decided conviction that a system, which contemplates only the imparting a high measure of education to a few, exclusively through the medium of English, must fail to produce any great or general effect upon the national mind. It appears to me to reverse the natural order of things,—and that the attempt to educate and enlighten a nation through a foreign language, is one opposed to the experience of all times and countries. English must ever be, in this land, to the mass, an unknown tongue

4. A smattering of English may be acquired by a considerable number about our towns, or in immediate communication with the few English residing in India; but the people (the women as well as men) will, as a whole, only think and speak and read in their native tongues; and their general enlightenment, or education, must—and I believe, can, only be attained through this channel; and a wide basis therefore of a solid, though limited education, through the means of the vernacular languages, must be given to those classes which now receive education, before any thing permanent will be effected.

5. It is upon this broad basis alone, that the superstructure of a high standard of refined education can, it appears to me, be raised, and the superior acquirements of the few very highly educated be made to tell upon and influence society. For let us suppose that we have some tens or even scores of youths, out of a population of millions,—masters of the higher sciences, well acquainted with all the beauties of Shakespeare, of Milton and with the learning of Bacon, and with the great master minds of Europe, and the rest of the people, not the lowest classes alone, left in their hereditary ignorance, and that ignorance, Asiatic.

6. How, I would ask, is this mass, wholly unprepared by even an elementary education in western learning, to understand and appreciate the acquirements of the highly educated man? or, how is he to communicate his high attainments in science,

and literature to them? and what possible influence would be therefore exercise over them. In Europe, the bulk of the population who receive an education have ordinarily some elementary instruction in the higher sciences—in astronomy, natural philosophy, &c., and individuals throughout all grades of society have, some more, some less, knowledge of the higher sciences—and in many cases,—a considerable degree of scientific acquirement, which enables and qualifies some in all ranks to appreciate more or less fully the highest discoveries and attainments in science. There is consequently a connecting link, running through all society there, which conveys the highest truths of science in an elementary form to all grades, and the acquisitions of the most advanced minds, can be, and are, appreciated by those immediately below them; and through them they filter down to the lower grades, who are prepared in their measure, by elementary instruction, to receive them.

7. But what is the case in this country. High acquirements in science, or literature will be appreciated and understood by none, but the few alone highly educated. There is a broad and impassable line between them and all others. I cannot but think it almost certain therefore, that the only result of a system, which educates a few highly,—and leaves the rest of the population without even elementary instruction, is, to render all the superior acquirements of that few, (made moreover at an enormous cost to the state), barren and fruitless as to any general influence upon society.

8. The youths or men so advanced will exist in a great measure, only as a small isolated class, despising others; and neither appreciated, nor esteemed by their fellow countrymen. This must be, so far as I can see my way, the inevitable consequence of a system which provides only for the superior education of the few, and makes no simultaneous provision upon a large scale for the instruction of the many.

9. It is further to my mind a mistake, as being wholly premature, to found institutions and classes for the highest branches of study, whilst there are no lower institutions in existence, from which the superior minds and tried scholars can be drawn, who shall give an assurance that they are prepared by natural talents, as well as by prior acquirements, to prosecute these higher branches with success. The course now pursued, and advocated by some, appears to me to ensure a waste of time, and of funds.

10. This, it is my decided conviction, has been the case, in the instance of the present University, where it will be found that a small class of six or seven ordinary youths have been brought forward in the higher branches there taught, at an enormous charge,—and I shall add as the result of personal knowledge, without a sufficient, solid groundwork. This was found on the general examination before the Council of Education, when tried with the scholars of other institutions, as scarcely one of the University students was thoroughly master of a passage in Addison, able to give its full meaning and force in his own language, and in English,—though his scientific acquirements, it might be, were of a high standard.

11. It is not the young men, but the system, I apprehend, which is in fault. There could be little or no selection of youths, for they all come from one very limited school,—the high school or University; and it is not reasonable to suppose

that this one institution could always furnish youths of very superior natural abilities, and of proved industry, to fit them to undertake and to make solid advances in a course, combining formal and physical astronomy, conic sections, algebra, trigonometry, chemistry, mental philosophy, political economy, besides the ordinary acquirements of history, geography and general literature in a foreign tongue;—these youths moreover having only learned their A. B. C. a few years before.

12. I must consider all this, to be in a great degree, if not wholly premature, in the infant state of education at this Presidency, and an unwise application of the funds applicable to the furtherance of education. It will be seen from the report from the late Council of Education, that the opinion now expressed, is not a solitary one, but I would not rely upon any statement or assertion, but would appeal to the very nature of things, whether it is not absolutely necessary in order to qualify youths for effective study of these varied and higher branches of learning, to lay a large and solid basis of general elementary knowledge; to submit them to a course of preparatory study and training through a series of years. This is the course followed in England, in Scotland and in all other countries. Youths are there only qualified to enter the Universities and take up the higher studies after long and hard training, and the same system must be pursued here, if practical and permanent results are looked for.

13. This is the system I would counsel. I would therefore at once suspend the action of the University as such, and would confine it for a time to the more thorough acquisition of English and the vernacular languages, and only upon a class for the higher branches of mathematics, political economy, and other similar studies, when a sufficient body of men has been trained, whether in Madras or in the Provinces, to allow of selection, to whom admission to such classes in the University should be held out as the reward of superior attainment in the schools.

14. I need scarcely add, after this statement of my views, that I entirely agree in the importance of a thorough education of the people in the vernacular tongues. It is by this means that they can be taught either to make, or understand the translations from Western literature, and it is through this channel alone there can be the slightest prospect of reaching the women of the country, for they must, it is beyond question, receive all the knowledge they have time and opportunity to acquire through their mother tongue. If they are neglected, and they remain wholly uneducated, it may be safely predicated, that India will continue, as the rest of Asia, in its semi-barbarous ignorance. I consider therefore instruction in the vernaculars to be essential, and that without it a scheme of education will be most limited or partial in its effects, and of comparatively little value.

15. If the above views be admitted, as to the general character of the education which should now be given in the Government institution, *viz.*, that it should not be of that high flown description hitherto aimed at, but comparatively elementary,* and that a thorough knowledge of the vernacular languages should be required,

* Note.—This course, it appears to me, is prescribed by the Honorable Court, “para. 12, of their Despatch, 28th August 1843,” and also is that recommended by the late Council of Education, see their letter to Government.

thus laying a solid foundation for future general progress, I would then strongly advocate, as a most important means of furthering the general instruction of the people, that measures should be taken for aiding and regulating private efforts for education.

16. I think it a mistake for the Government to hold itself aloof from all private efforts and to confine its funds and care to the few Government institutions it has the power of forming. The great cause of education will be far more advanced, I cannot but think, by a judicious and hearty encouragement of those private institutions which give a liberal education, rather than by the exclusive course hitherto followed.

17. I may here add, to prevent misapprehension, that in speaking of the general instruction of the people, I do not refer to schools, or instruction in the first elements of their own tongues, adapted to the great bulk of the lower classes: but to schools established for those large sections of the community, who now receive something of an education, and are by caste and habit prepared to accept and take advantage of any institution which shall qualify them for public employment and thus offer them the prospect of advancement in life.

18. It must be borne in mind that it is not, in this country, solely the wealthy or the class raised by the possession of property to easy circumstances which constitute the influential classes, or who are the most ready to receive an enlightened education. The poor Brahmin and others of high caste are quite as well prepared and more anxious to enter our schools, and as capable of profiting by them, as the wealthiest, and as influential in society. It is therefore a misapprehension, I think, to look upon the wealthy only as the higher classes and as those alone, or even chiefly, prepared for receiving a superior education or who influenced the society, as in Europe.

19. I cannot but also think, that it will be right to regulate the position and extent of Government institutions, with reference to the existence, and character of private efforts in any locality. The principle I would gladly see adopted, would be, that an enlarged and liberal view should be taken, and that all educational institutions be more or less encouraged; that there shall be no clashing or opposition; that whilst the Government pursues its own plans and views, it shall not require, that all others shall square their views, and see eye to eye with the Government Council; but if it be clear, that a sound liberal education is acquired, and the native community themselves readily take advantage of such schools, that they shall receive, if not support, at least no opposition or interference from Government establishments.

20. I apply these remarks to Missionary educational institutions, as to all others. The Government can withhold, and should do so, any direct connection or support to such institutions, but if the people themselves willingly resort to them, and neither compulsion nor undue influence is used to this end, I can see no good or sufficient ground for opposing or interfering with them by Government establishments. The only consequence of this course, will be, to constitute the supporters

and friends of education, antagonists, rather than fellow laborers, walking indeed in different paths, but tending to the same end.

21. It will not be desirable to extend this paper, and I will now only record my opinions on other points, without assigning the grounds on which I have been led to entertain them.

22. It will be found necessary I should think, to have a Secretary with no other duty, who will throw himself with all his heart and energies into the work. So also I should concur in the view taken. I am aware, by the Honorable Mr. Eliott, the President of the proposed Council, - and I only mention it to express this concurrence, that an Executive or Sub-Committee should be formed from the general body of the Council, to make it a working Board.

23. I should suppose also, that some agency will be required to prepare elementary books for the use of schools to be established, and for their inspection, and especially to see that the vernacular instruction is effective.

24. I may state my opinion likewise, that fees should be charged at all Government institutions, and that as a general rule, this should be a condition where assistance is given from the public funds to private establishments.

25. There is lastly but one additional point, but that the most important of all, which it seems necessary to notice ;—the necessity of adopting some plan, by which the moral character of the youths under instruction in the Government institution may be improved. Education without moral culture is probably as often injurious as beneficial to society ; and at all events a system like that at present in force, which to a great degree practically overlooks this point, and which makes little or no provision for this most essential part of education, is so radically defective, that I feel satisfied, that although it may be upheld for a time under special and peculiar influences, it must in the end fail, and I hold that unless it can be shewn, that the people of this Presidency are opposed to receiving moral instruction, combined with intellectual, there is no ground for this palpable practical omission in the existing system.

26. The fact is, I firmly believe, that there is no such opposition, nor unwillingness on the part of the people in this Presidency ; as shewn, by the hundreds who flock to the schools of Missionaries, where, I might say, the larger proportion of time is given, not merely to moral, but religious instruction. If then, the people as a whole, readily accept this instruction, as they do, in large numbers, it is obvious that there can be no truth in, nor foundation for the assertion, that they are unwilling to receive moral instruction even through the Bible, or that this is opposed to their prejudices or feelings.

27. Their acts appear to me to prove that they are willing to receive any measure of moral instruction, if combined with intellectual knowledge, and I see no reason therefore, why they should not receive it direct from the only source of morals, the Scripture. All other sources are either fallacious, or so shallow and polluted, as to be worth little.

28. Whilst therefore I would deny to no one the freest exercise of his conscientious convictions, if they led him to refuse to be taught morals from the only fountain of truth, I would not, nor do I see any valid reason in this Presidency, for the present system which prohibits all instruction from the Scriptures. On the contrary, I would sanction their introduction wherever a master or local Committee saw no objection, and it is at the same time, left optional, with the student and his parents, to avail himself of this instruction, or not.

29. I am unable to see any force in the objection, that this optional study of the morals of the New Testament, could be viewed as a measure specially hostile to the religion of the people. It is palpable that all truth, as well in science, as in morals, is not in accordance with Hinduism, and Hinduism, if not Mahomedanism, is as certain to be undermined by a liberal education in Western science and literature, as by adding to it the further enlightenment and benefit which would follow by providing for the really moral as well as intellectual culture of the youths taught in the Government institutions.

30. I confess, that I am unable to understand the utility and propriety of placing before the young mind, instead of the truth, a false system of Ethics, "Smith's Theory of Moral Sentiments,"—a theory, characterized even by his Biographer Dugald Stewart, as erroneous. It is difficult to understand what is proposed to be gained by inculcating error.

31. Nor do I think that the making Shakespeare a standard book, is practically wise, if moral culture is kept in view; for full as his writings are of beauties and excellencies, they are mixed up with so much that is polluting, that they can scarcely be considered fit to be put into the hands of the young, as a common class book.

32. I offer these remarks to justify the statement made, as to the defective character of the moral instruction now imparted: and I look upon it, that one of the most important objects, if not the most important, which can engage the attention of the Council of Education, will be to make better provision for the moral improvement of the students in the Government seminaries, rendering these institutions truly valuable, from which men, elevated, not by intellectual acquirements alone, but in moral character, may be sent forth to be meet instruments for the just and enlightened Government of the country.

33. In conclusion, I will briefly sum up the views I entertain, and which I considered my duty required of me to place before the Board distinctly. But although fully persuaded myself of their correctness, I can add with sincerity, that I am quite prepared to give other views and plans my best consideration, knowing, as all who have paid much attention to this subject do, that very opposite opinions are entertained and strongly advocated by men of unquestionable ability and experience.

First. I should propose at present the education to be given at the Government institutions, especially in the Provinces, to be a Grammar school, and not a University education,—to be limited therefore to a good knowledge of the English, and the vernacular language of the student, with a fair ordinary but well grounded acquaintance with geography, arithmetic, history; the elements of astronomy, and

the first books of Euclid leaving all the higher branches of study, political economy chemistry, mental philosophy, the higher mathematics, &c., for a future day.

Second. The support and encouragement of all private schools giving a liberal education.

Third. A public examination, open to all, and certain immediate employment in the public service, though to a very limited number, as the reward of proficiency and good conduct.

Fourth. The preparation of school-books to be immediately commenced in a separate department.

Fifth. A provision by scholarships, and certain employment with liberal salaries for schoolmasters, to be employed only after an ample test of their qualifications.

Sixth. Lastly, the provision by well selected books, and lectures, including optional lessons in the Scriptures, for the moral culture of the students.

Other points, rather of detail than of principle, will come up for consideration, I conclude, hereafter, and need not now be entered upon.

(Signed) J. F. THOMAS.

26th June 1851.

APPENDIX C.

DESPATCH OF 1854.

It appears to us that the present time, when by an Act of the Imperial Legislature the responsible trust of the Government of India has again been placed in our hands, is peculiarly suitable for the review of the progress which has already been made, the supply of existing deficiencies and the adoption of such improvements as may be best calculated to secure the ultimate benefit of the people committed to our charge.

Among many subjects of importance, none can have a stronger claim to our attention than that of education. It is one of our most sacred duties to be the means, as far as in us lies, of conferring upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of useful knowledge, and which India may under Providence derive from her connexion with England. For, although British influence has already, in many remarkable instances, been applied with great energy and success to uproot demoralising practices, and even crimes of a deeper dye, which for ages had prevailed among the natives of India, the good results of those efforts must, in order to be permanent, possess the further sanction of a general sympathy in the native mind which the advance of education alone can secure.

PUBLIC LETTER TO BENGAL, 5TH SEPT. 1827.

We have, moreover, always looked upon the encouragement of education, as peculiarly important, because calculated "not only to produce a higher degree of intellectual fitness, but to raise the moral character of those who partake of its advantages, and so to supply you with servants to whose probity you may with increased confidence commit offices of trust" in India, where the well-being of the people is so intimately connected with the truthfulness and ability of officers of every grade in all departments of the State.

Nor, while the character of England is deeply concerned in the success of our efforts for the promotion of education, are her material interests altogether unaffected by the advance of European knowledge in India : this knowledge will teach the natives of India the marvellous results of the employment of labour and capital, rouse them to emulate us in the development of the vast resources of their country, guide them in their efforts, and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce ; and, at the same time, secure to us a larger and more certain supply of many articles necessary for our manufactures and extensively consumed by all classes of our population, as well as an almost inexhaustible demand for the produce of British labour.

We have from time to time given careful attention and encouragement to the efforts which have hitherto been made for the spread of education, and we have watched with deep interest the practical results of the various systems by which those efforts have been directed. The periodical reports of the different Councils and Boards of Education, together with other official communications upon the same subject, have put us in possession of full information as to those educational establishments which are under the direct control of Government; while the evidence taken before the Committees of both Houses of Parliament upon Indian affairs has given us the advantage of similar information with respect to exertions made for this purpose by persons unconnected with Government, and has also enabled us to profit by a knowledge of the views of those who are best able to arrive at sound conclusions upon the question of education generally.

Aided, therefore, by example, experience of the past, and the most competent advice for the future we are now in a position to decide on the mode in which the assistance of Government should be afforded to the more extended and systematic promotion of general education in India, and on the measures which should at once be adopted to that end.

Before proceeding further, we must emphatically declare that the education which we desire to see extended in India is that which has for its object the diffusion of the improved arts, science, philosophy, and literature of Europe; in short, of European knowledge.

The systems of science and philosophy which form the learning of the East abound with grave errors, and Eastern literature is at best very deficient as regards all modern discovery and improvements; Asiatic learning, therefore, however widely diffused, would but little advance our object. We do not wish to diminish the opportunities which are now afforded, in special institutions, for the study of Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian literature, or for the cultivation of those languages, which may be called the classical languages of India. An acquaintance with the works contained in them is valuable for historical and antiquarian purposes, and a knowledge of the languages themselves is required in the study of Hindoo and Mahomedan law, and is also of great importance for the critical cultivation and improvement of the vernacular languages of India.

We are not unaware of the success of many distinguished Oriental scholars in their praiseworthy endeavours to engraft upon portions of Hindoo philosophy the germs of sounder morals and of more advanced science; and we are far from underrating the good effect which has thus been produced upon the learned classes of India, who pay hereditary veneration to those ancient languages, and whose assistance in the spread of education is so valuable, from the honourable and influential position which they occupy among their fellow-countrymen. But such attempts, although they may usefully co-operate, can only be considered as auxiliaries, and would be a very inadequate foundation for any general scheme of Indian education.

We have also received most satisfactory evidence of the high attainments in English literature and European science which have been acquired of late years by

some of the natives of India. But this success has been confined to but a small number of persons; and we are desirous of extending far more widely the means of acquiring general European knowledge, of a less high order, but of such a character as may be practically useful to the people of India in their different spheres of life. To attain this end it is necessary, for the reasons which we have given above, that they should be made familiar with the works of European authors, and with the results of the thought and labour of Europeans on the subjects of every description upon which knowledge is to be imparted to them; and to extend the means of imparting this knowledge must be the *object* of any general system of education.

We have next to consider the manner in which our object is to be effected; and this leads us to the question of the *medium* through which knowledge is to be conveyed to the people of India. It has hitherto been necessary, owing to the want of translations or adaptations of European works in the vernacular languages of India, and to the very imperfect shape in which European knowledge is to be found in any works in the learned languages of the East, for those who desired to obtain a liberal education, to begin by the mastery of the English language as a key to the literature of Europe; and a knowledge of English will always be essential to those natives of India who aspire to a high order of education.

In some parts of India, more especially in the immediate vicinity of the Presidency towns, where persons who possess a knowledge of English are preferred to others in many employments, public as well as private, a very moderate proficiency in the English language is often looked upon by those who attend school instruction, as the end and object of their education, rather than as a necessary step to the improvement of their general knowledge. We do not deny the value in many respects of the mere faculty of speaking and writing English, but we fear that a tendency has been created in these districts, unduly to neglect the study of the vernacular languages.

VERNACULAR INSTRUCTION.

It is neither our aim nor desire to substitute the English language for the vernacular dialects of the country. We have always been most sensible of the importance of the use of the languages which alone are understood by the great mass of the population. These languages, and not English, have been put by us in the place of Persian in the administration of justice, and in the intercourse between the officers of Government and the people. It is indispensable, therefore, that in any general system of education the study of them should be assiduously attended to. And any acquaintance with improved European knowledge which is to be communicated to the great mass of the people—whose circumstances prevent them from acquiring a high order of education, and who cannot be expected to overcome the difficulties of a foreign language—can only be conveyed to them through one or other of these vernacular languages.

In any general system of education, the English language should be taught where there is a demand for it; but such instruction should always be combined with a careful attention to the study of the vernacular language of the district, and

with such general instruction as can be conveyed through that language. And while the English language continues to be made use of, as by far the most perfect *medium* for the education of those persons who have acquired a sufficient knowledge of it to receive general instruction *through* it, the vernacular languages must be employed to teach the far larger classes who are ignorant of, or imperfectly acquainted with, English. This can only be done effectually through the instrumentality of masters and professors, who may, by themselves knowing English, and thus having full access to the latest improvements in knowledge of every kind, impart to their fellow-countrymen, through the medium of their mother-tongue the information which they have thus obtained. At the same time, and as the importance of the vernacular languages becomes more appreciated, the vernacular literatures of India will be gradually enriched by translations of European books, or by the original compositions of men whose minds have been imbued with the spirit of European advancement, so that European knowledge may gradually be placed in this manner within the reach of all classes of the people. We look, therefore, to the English language and to the vernacular languages of India together, as the *media* for the diffusion of European knowledge, and it is our desire to see them cultivated together in all schools in India of a sufficiently high class to maintain a schoolmaster possessing the requisite qualifications.

We proceed now to the machinery which we propose to establish for the superintendence and direction of education. This has hitherto been exercised, in our Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, by Boards and Councils of Education, composed of European and Native gentlemen, who have devoted themselves to this duty with no other remuneration than the consciousness of assisting the progress of learning and civilisation; and, at the same time, with an earnestness and ability which must command the gratitude of the people of India, and which will entitle some honoured names amongst them to a high place among the benefactors of India and of the human race.

The Lieutenant-Governor of Agra has, since the separation of the educational institutions of the North-Western Provinces from those of Bengal, taken upon himself the task of their management; and we cannot allow this opportunity to pass without the observation that, in this, as in all other branches of his administration, Mr. Thomason displayed that accurate knowledge of the condition and requirements of the people under his charge, and that clear and ready perception of the practical measures best suited for their welfare, which make his death a loss to India, which we deplore the more deeply as we fear that his unremitting exertions tended to shorten his career of usefulness.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO BE FORMED.

We desire to express to the present Boards and Councils of Education our sincere thanks for the manner in which they have exercised their functions, and we still hope to have the assistance of the gentlemen composing them in furtherance of a most important part of our present plan; but, having determined upon a very considerable extension of the general scope of our efforts, involving the simultaneous

employment of different agencies, some of which are now wholly neglected, and others but imperfectly taken advantage of by Government, we are of opinion that it is advisable to place the superintendence and direction of education upon a more systematic footing, and we have therefore determined to create an Educational Department, as a portion of the machinery of our Governments in the several Presidencies of India. We accordingly propose that an officer shall be appointed for each Presidency and Lieutenant-Governorship, who shall be specially charged with the management of the business connected with education and be immediately responsible to Government for its conduct.

INSPECTORS.

An adequate system of inspection will also, for the future, become an essential part of our educational system; and we desire that a sufficient number of qualified Inspectors be appointed, who will periodically report upon the state of those colleges and schools which are now supported and managed by Government, as well as of such as will hereafter be brought under Government inspection, by the measures that we propose to adopt. They will conduct, or assist at, the examination of the scholars at these institutions, and generally, by their advice, aid the managers and schoolmasters in conducting colleges and schools of every description throughout the country. They will necessarily be of different classes, and may possess different degrees of acquirement, according to the higher or lower character of the institutions which they will be employed to visit; but we need hardly say that, even for the proper inspection of the lower schools, and with a view to their effectual improvement, the greatest care will be necessary to select persons of high character and fitting judgment for such employment. A proper staff of clerks and other officers will, moreover, be required for the educational departments.

REPORTS.

Reports of the proceedings of the inspectors should be made periodically, and these again should be embodied in the annual reports of the heads of the educational departments, which should be transmitted to us, together with statistical returns (to be drawn up in similar forms in all parts of India), and other information of a general character relating to education.

PROVISIONAL ARRANGEMENTS TO BE AT ONCE MADE AT MADRAS, &c.

We shall send copies of this dispatch to the Governments of Fort St. George and of Bombay, and direct them at once to make provisional arrangements for the superintendence and inspection of education in their respective Presidencies. Such arrangements as they may make will be reported to you for sanction. You will take similar measures in communication with the Lieutenant-Governors of Bengal and of Agra, and you will also provide in such manner as may seem advisable for the wants of the non-regulation Provinces in this respect. We desire that your proceedings in this matter may be reported to us with as little delay as possible; and we are prepared to approve of such an expenditure as you may deem necessary for this purpose.

In the selection of the heads of the educational departments, the inspectors, and other officers, it will be of the greatest importance to secure, the services of persons who are not only best able, from their character, position, and acquirements, to carry our objects into effect, but who may command the confidence of the natives of India. It may perhaps be advisable that the first heads of the educational department, as well as some of the inspectors, should be members of our civil service; as such appointments in the first instance would tend to raise the estimation in which these offices will be held, and to show the importance we attach to the subject of education, and also as amongst them you will probably find the persons best qualified for the performance of the duty. But we desire that neither these offices, nor any others connected with education, shall be considered as necessarily to be filled by members of that service, to the exclusion of others, Europeans or Natives, who may be better fitted for them; and that, in any case, the scale of their remuneration shall be so fixed as publicly to recognise the important duties they will have to perform.

We now proceed to sketch out the general scheme of the measures which we propose to adopt. We have endeavoured to avail ourselves of the knowledge which has been gained from the various experiments which have been made in different parts of India for the encouragement of education; and we hope, by the more general adoption of those plans which have been carried into successful execution in particular districts, as well as by the introduction of other measures which appear to be wanting, to establish such a system as will prove generally applicable throughout India, and thus to impart to the educational efforts of our different Presidencies a greater degree of uniformity and method than at present exists.

We are fully aware that no general scheme would be applicable in all its details to the present condition of all portions of our Indian territories, differing, so widely as they do, one from another, in many important particulars. It is difficult, moreover, for those who do not possess a recent and practical acquaintance with particular districts to appreciate the importance which should be attached to the feelings and influences which prevail in each; and we have, therefore, preferred confining ourselves to describing generally what we wish to see done, leaving to you, in communication with the several local Governments, to modify particular measures so far as may be required, in order to adapt them to different parts of India.

UNIVERSITIES.

Some years ago, we declined to accede to a proposal made by the Council of Education, and transmitted to us, with the recommendation of your Government, for the institution of an University in Calcutta. The rapid spread of a liberal education among the natives of India since that time, the high attainments shown by the native candidates for Government scholarships, and by native students in private institutions, the success of the Medical Colleges, and the requirements of an increasing European and Anglo-Indian population, have led us to the conclusion that the time is now arrived for the establishment of Universities in India, which may encourage a regular and liberal course of education, by conferring Academical degrees as evidences of attainments in the different branches of art and science, and

by adding marks of honor for those who may desire to compete for honorary distinction.

The Council of Education, in the proposal to which we have alluded, took the London University as their model; and we agree with them, that the form, government, and functions of that University (copies of whose charters and regulations we enclose for your reference) are the best adapted to the wants of India, and may be followed with advantage, although some variation will be necessary in points of detail.

The Universities in India will accordingly consist of a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, and Fellows, who will constitute a Senate. The Senates will have the management of the funds of the Universities, and frame regulations for your approval, under which periodical examinations may be held in the different branches of art and science, by examiners selected from their own body, or nominated by them.

DEGREES.

The function of the Universities will be to confer degrees upon such persons as, having been entered as candidates according to the rules which may be fixed in this respect, and having produced, from any of the "affiliated institutions," which will be enumerated on the foundation of the Universities, or be from time to time added to them by Government, certificates of conduct; and of having pursued a regular course of study for a given time, shall have also passed at the Universities such an examination as may be required of them. It may be advisable to dispense with the attendance required at the London University for the matriculation examination, and to substitute some mode of entrance examination which may secure a certain amount of knowledge in the candidates for degrees, without making their attendance at the Universities necessary, previous to the final examination.

The examinations for degrees will not include any subjects connected with religious belief; and the affiliated institutions will be under the management of persons of every variety of religious persuasion. As in England, various institutions in immediate connexion with the Church of England, the Presbyterian College at Caermarthen, the Roman-Catholic College at Oscott, the Wesleyan College at Sheffield, the Baptist College at Bristol, and the Countess of Huntingdon's College at Cheshunt, are among the institutions from which the London University is empowered to receive certificates for degrees. So in India, institutions conducted by all denominations of Christians, Hindoos, Mahomedans, Parsees, Sikhs, Bhuddists, Jains, or any other religious persuasions, may be affiliated to the Universities, if they are found to afford the requisite course of study, and can be depended upon for the certificates of conduct which will be required.

STANDARD.

The detailed regulations for the examination for degrees should be framed with a due regard for all classes of the affiliated institutions; and we will only observe upon this subject, that the standard for common degrees will require to be fixed with very great judgment. There are many persons who will deserve the distinction of an Academical degree, as the recognition of a liberal education, who could not

hope to obtain it, if the examination was as difficult as that for the Senior Government Scholarships ; and the standard required should be such as to command respect, without discouraging the efforts of deserving students, which would be a great obstacle to the success of the Universities. In the competitions for honours, which, as in the London University, will follow the examinations for degrees, care should be taken to maintain such a standard as will afford a guarantee for high ability and valuable attainments ; the subjects for examination being so selected as to include the best portions of the different schemes of study pursued at the affiliated institutions.

PROFESSORSHIPS.

It will be advisable to institute, in connexion with the Universities, Professorships for the purpose of the delivery of lectures in various branches of learning, for the acquisition of which, at any rate in an advanced degree, facilities do not now exist in other institutions in India. Law is the most important of these subjects ; and it will be for you to consider whether, as was proposed in the plan of the Council of Education to which we have before referred, the attendance upon certain lectures, and the attainment of a degree in law, may not, for the future, be made a qualification for Vakeels and Moonsiffs, instead of, or in addition to, the present system of examination, which must, however, be continued in places not within easy reach of an University.

CIVIL ENGINEERING.

Civil Engineering is another subject of importance, the advantages of which, as a profession, are gradually becoming known to the natives of India ; and while we are inclined to believe that instruction of a practical nature, such as is given at the Thomason College of Civil Engineering at Roorkee, is far more useful than any lectures could possibly be, professorships of Civil Engineering might perhaps be attached to the Universities, and Degrees in Civil Engineering be included in their general scheme.

LANGUAGES.

Other branches of useful learning may suggest themselves to you, in which it might be advisable that lectures should be read, and special degrees given ; and it would greatly encourage the cultivation of the vernacular languages of India that Professorships should be founded for those languages, and, perhaps, also for Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian. A knowledge of the Sanskrit language, the root of the vernaculars of the greater part of India, is more especially necessary to those who are engaged in the work of composition in those languages ; while Arabic, through Persian, is one of the component parts of the Urdu language, which extends over so large a part of Hindostan and is, we are informed, capable of considerable development. The grammar of these languages, and their application to the improvement of the spoken languages of the country, are the points to which the attention of these Professors should be mainly directed ; and there will be an ample field for their labours unconnected with any instruction in the tenets of the Hindoo or Mahomedan religions. We should refuse to sanction any such teaching, as directly opposed to the principle of religious neutrality to which we have always adhered.

We desire that you take into your consideration the institution of Universities at Calcutta and Bombay, upon the general principles which we have now explained to you, and report to us upon the best method of procedure, with a view to their incorporation by Acts of the Legislative Council of India. The offices of Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor will naturally be filled by persons of high station, who have shown an interest in the cause of education; and it is in connexion with the Universities that we propose to avail ourselves of the services of the existing Council of Education at Calcutta, and Board of Education at Bombay. We wish to place these gentlemen in a position which will not only mark our sense of the exertions which they have made in furtherance of education, but will give it the benefit of their past experience of the subject. We propose, therefore, that the Council of Education at Calcutta, and the Board of Education at Bombay, with some additional members to be named by the Government, shall constitute the Senate of the University at each of those Presidencies.

The additional members should be so selected as to give to all those who represent the different systems of education which will be carried on in the affiliated Institutions—including Natives of India, of all religious persuasions, who possess the confidence of the native communities—a fair voice in the Senates. We are led to make these remarks, as we observe that the plan of the Council of Education, in 1845, for the constitution of the Senate of the proposed Calcutta University, was not sufficiently comprehensive.

We shall be ready to sanction the creation of an University at Madras, or in any other part of India, where a sufficient number of institutions exist from which properly qualified candidates for degrees could be supplied; it being in our opinion advisable that the great centres of European government and civilisation in India should possess Universities similar in character to those which will now be founded, as soon as the extension of a liberal education shows that their establishment would be of advantage to the native communities.

Having provided for the general superintendence of education, and for the institution of Universities, not so much to be in themselves places of instruction, as to test the value of the education obtained elsewhere. We proceed to consider, first, the different classes of colleges, and schools, which should be maintained in simultaneous operation, in order to place within the reach of all classes of the natives of India the means of obtaining improved knowledge suited to their several conditions of life; and, secondly, the manner in which the most effectual aid may be rendered by Government to each class of educational institutions.

The candidates for University degrees will, as we have already explained, be supplied by Colleges affiliated to the Universities. These will comprise all such institutions as are capable of supplying a sufficiently high order of instruction in the different branches of art and science, in which University degrees will be accorded. The Hindoo, Hooghly, Dacca, Kishnagur, and Berhampore Government Anglo-vernacular Colleges, the Sanskrit College, the Mahomedan Madrissas, and the Medical College, in Bengal; the Elphinstone Institution, the Poonah College, and the Grant Medical College, in Bombay; the Delhi, Agra, Benares, Bareilly, and Thomason

Colleges, in the North-Western Provinces; seminaries, such as the Oriental Seminary in Calcutta, which have been established by highly educated natives, a class of places of instruction which we are glad to learn is daily increasing in numbers and efficiency; those which, like the Parental Academy, are conducted by East Indians; Bishop's College, the General Assembly's Institution, Dr. Duff's College, the Baptist College at Serampore, and other institutions under the superintendence of different religious bodies and Missionary Societies; will, at once, supply a considerable number of educational establishments, worthy of being affiliated to the Universities, and of occupying the highest place in the scale of general instruction.

The affiliated institutions will be periodically visited by Government Inspectors; and a spirit of honorable rivalry, tending to preserve their efficiency, will be promoted by this, as well as by the competition of their most distinguished students for University honours. Scholarships should be attached to them, to be held by the best students of lower schools; and their scheme of education should provide, in the Anglo-Vernacular colleges, for a careful cultivation of the vernacular languages; and, in the Oriental colleges, for sufficient instruction in the English and vernacular languages, so as to render the studies of each most available for that general diffusion of European knowledge which is the main object of education in India.

It is to this class of institutions that the attention of Government has hitherto been principally directed, and they absorb the greater part of the public funds which are now applied to educational purposes. The wise abandonment of the early views with respect to native education, which erroneously pointed to the classical languages of the East as the *Media* for imparting European knowledge, together with the small amount of pecuniary aid which, in the then financial condition of India, was at your command, has led, we think, to too exclusive a direction of the efforts of Government towards providing the means of acquiring a very high degree of education for a small number of natives of India, drawn, for the most part, from what we should here call the higher classes.

It is well that every opportunity should have been given to those classes for the acquisition of a liberal European education, the effects of which may be expected slowly to pervade the rest of their fellow-countrymen, and to raise, in the end, the educational tone of the whole country. We are, therefore, far from underrating the importance, or the success, of the efforts which have been made in this direction; but the higher classes are both able and willing, in many cases, to bear a considerable part at least of the cost of their education; and it is abundantly evident that in some parts of India no artificial stimulus is any longer required in order to create a demand for such an education as is conveyed in the Government Anglo-Vernacular Colleges. We have, by the establishment and support of these colleges, pointed out the manner in which a liberal education is to be obtained, and assisted them to a very considerable extent from the public funds. In addition to this, we are now prepared to give by sanctioning the establishment of Universities, full development to the highest course of education to which the natives of India, or of any other country, can aspire; and besides, by the division of University degrees and distinctions into different branches, the exertions of highly educated men will be directed

to the studies which are necessary to success in the various active professions of life. We shall, therefore, have done as much as a Government can do to place the benefits of education plainly and practically before the higher classes in India.

EDUCATION OF THE MASS OF THE PEOPLE.

Our attention should now be directed to a consideration if possible, still more important, and one which has been hitherto, we are bound to admit, too much neglected; namely, how useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life, may be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts; and we desire to see the active measures of Government more especially directed, for the future, to this object, for the attainment of which we are ready to sanction a considerable increase of expenditure.

Schools—whose object should be, not to train highly a few youths, but to provide more opportunities than now exist for the acquisition of such an improved education as will make those who possess it more useful members of society in every condition of life—should exist in every district in India. These schools should be subject to constant and careful inspection; and their pupils might be encouraged by Scholarships being instituted at other institutions which would be tenable as rewards for merit by the best of their number.

We include in this class of institutions those which, like the Zillah schools of Bengal, the district Government Anglo-Vernacular Schools of Bombay, and such as have been established by the Rajah of Burdwan and other native gentlemen in different parts of India, use the English language as the chief medium of instruction; as well as others of an inferior order, such as the Tahsili schools in the North-Western Provinces, and the Government Vernacular Schools in the Bombay Presidency, whose object is, however imperfectly it has been as yet carried out, to convey the highest class of instruction which can now be taught through the medium of the Vernacular languages.

We include these Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to maintain the broad line of separation which at present exists between schools in which the *Media* for imparting instruction differ. The knowledge conveyed is, no doubt, at the present time, much higher in the Anglo-Vernacular than in the Vernacular Schools; but the difference will become less marked, and the latter more efficient, as the gradual enrichment of the Vernacular languages in works of education allows their schemes of study to be enlarged, and as a more numerous class of schoolmasters is raised up able to impart a superior education.

It is indispensable, in order fully and efficiently to carry out our views as to these schools, that their masters should possess a knowledge of English in order to acquire, and of the Vernaculars so as readily to convey, useful knowledge to their pupils; but we are aware that it is impossible to obtain at present the services of a sufficient number of persons so qualified, and that such a class must be gradually collected, and trained in the manner to which we shall hereafter allude. In the meantime

you must make the best use which is possible of such instruments as are now at your command.

Lastly, what have been termed indigenous schools should by wise encouragement, such as has been given under the system organised by Mr. Thomason in the North-Western Provinces, and which has been carried out in eight districts under the able direction of Mr. H. S. Reid in an eminently practical manner, and with great promise of satisfactory results, be made capable of imparting correct elementary knowledge to the great mass of the people. The most promising pupils of these schools might be rewarded by Scholarships in places of education of a superior order.

Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection; beginning with the humblest elementary instruction, and ending with the University test of a liberal education the best students in each class of schools being encouraged by the aid afforded them towards obtaining a superior education as the reward of merit, by means of such a system of Scholarships as we shall have to describe, would, we firmly believe, impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual, but steady, extension of its benefits to all classes of the people.

When we consider the vast population of British India, and the sums which are now expended upon educational efforts, which, however successful in themselves, have reached but an insignificant number of those who are of a proper age to receive school instruction, we cannot but be impressed with the almost insuperable difficulties which would attend such an extension of the present system of education by means of Colleges and Schools entirely supported at the cost of Government, as might be hoped to supply, in any reasonable time, so gigantic a deficiency, and to provide adequate means for setting on foot such a system as we have described, and desire to see established.

Nor is it necessary that we should depend entirely upon the direct efforts of Government. We are glad to recognise an increased desire on the part of the native population, not only in the neighbourhood of the great centres of European civilisation, but also in remoter districts, for the means of obtaining a better education; and we have evidence in many instances of their readiness to give a practical proof of their anxiety in this respect by coming forward with liberal pecuniary contributions. Throughout all ages, learned Hindoos and Mahomedans have devoted themselves to teaching, with little other remuneration than a bare subsistence; and munificent bequests have not unfrequently been made for the permanent endowment of educational institutions.

At the same time, in so far as the noble exertions of societies of Christians of all denominations to guide the natives of India in the way of religious truth, and to instruct uncivilised races, such as those found in Assam, in the Cossya, Garrow, and Rajmehal hills, and in various districts of Central and Southern India (who are in the lowest condition of ignorance, and are either wholly without a religion, or are the slaves of a degrading and barbarous superstition), have been accompanied, in

their educational establishments, by the diffusion of improved knowledge, they have largely contributed to the spread of that education which it is our object to promote.

BY OTHER THAN GOVERNMENT AGENCY.

The consideration of the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done in order to provide adequate means for the education of the natives of India, and of the ready assistance which may be derived from efforts which have hitherto received but little encouragement from the State, has led us to the natural conclusion that the most effectual method of providing for the wants of India in this respect will be to combine with the agency of the Government the aid which may be derived from the exertions and liberality of the educated and wealthy natives of India, and of other benevolent persons.

TO BE ENCOURAGED BY GRANTS-IN-AID.

We have, therefore, resolved to adopt in India the system of grants-in-aid, which has been carried out in this country with very great success; and we confidentially anticipate, by thus drawing support from local resources, in addition to contributions from the State, a far more rapid progress of education than would follow a mere increase of expenditure by the Government; while it possesses the additional advantage of fostering a spirit of reliance upon local exertions and combination for local purposes, which is of itself of no mean importance to the well-being of a nation.

The system of grants-in-aid which we propose to establish in India, will be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the schools assisted. Aid will be given (so far as the requirements of each particular district, as compared with others, and the funds at the disposal of Government may render it possible) to all schools which impart a good secular education, provided that they are under adequate local management (by the term "local management," we understand one or more persons, such as private patrons, voluntary subscribers, or the Trustees of endowments, who will undertake the general superintendence of the school, and be answerable for its permanence for some given time); and provided also that their managers consent that the schools shall be subject to Government inspection, and agree to any conditions which may be laid down for the regulation of such grants.

FEES HOWEVER SMALL TO BE REQUIRED.

It has been found by experience, in this and in other countries, that not only is an entirely gratuitous education valued far less by those who receive it than one for which some payment, however small, is made, but that the payment induces a more regular attendance, and greater exertion, on the part of the pupils; and, for this reason, as well as because school fees themselves, insignificant as they may be in each individual instance, will, in the aggregate, when applied to the support of a better class of masters, become of very considerable importance, we desire that grants-in-aid shall, as a general principle, be made to such schools only (with the exception of normal schools) as require some fee, however small, from their scholars.

Careful considerations will be required in framing rules for the administration of the grants; and the same course should be adopted in India which has been pursued with obvious advantage by the Committee of Council here, namely, to appropriate the grants to *specific objects*, and not (except, perhaps, in the case of normal schools) to apply them in the form of simple contributions in aid of the general expenses of a school. The augmentation of the salaries of the head teachers, and the supply of junior teachers, will probably be found in India, as with us, to be the most important objects to which the grants can ordinarily be appropriated. The foundation, or assistance in the foundation, of Scholarships for candidates from lower schools, will also be a proper object for the application of grants-in-aid. In some cases, again, assistance towards erecting, or repairing a school, or the provision of an adequate supply of school books, may be required; but the appropriation of the grant in each particular instance should be regulated by the peculiar circumstances of each school and district.

The amount, and continuance of the assistance given will depend upon the periodical reports of Inspectors, who will be selected with special reference to their possessing the confidence of the native communities. In their periodical inspections, *no notice whatsoever* should be taken by them of the religious doctrines which may be taught in any school; and their duty should be strictly confined to ascertaining whether the secular knowledge conveyed is such as to entitle it to consideration in the distribution of the sum which will be applied to grants-in-aid. They should also assist in the establishment of schools, by their advice, wherever they may have opportunities of doing so.

We confide the practical adaptation of the general principles we have laid down as to grants-in-aid to your discretion, aided by the educational departments of the different Presidencies. In carrying into effect our views, which apply alike to all schools and institutions, whether male or female, Anglo-Vernacular or vernacular, it is of the greatest importance that the conditions under which schools will be assisted should be clearly and publicly placed before the natives of India. For this purpose Government notifications should be drawn up, and promulgated, in the different Vernacular languages. It may be advisable distinctly to assert in them the principle of perfect religious neutrality on which the grants will be awarded; and care should be taken to avoid holding out expectations which from any cause, may be liable to disappointment.

There will be little difficulty in the application of this system of grants-in-aid to the higher order of places of instruction in India in which English is at present the medium of education.

Grants-in-aid will also at once give assistance to all such Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Schools as impart a good elementary education; but we fear that the number of this class of schools is at present inconsiderable, and that such as are in existence require great improvement.

A more minute and constant local supervision than would accompany the general system of grants-in-aid will be necessary in order to raise the character of the "indigenous schools," which are, at present, not only very inefficient in quality,

but of exceedingly precarious duration, as is amply shown by the statistics collected by Mr. Adam in Bengal and Behar, and from the very important information we have received of late years from the North-Western Provinces. In organising such a system, we cannot do better than to refer you to the manner in which the operations of Mr. Reid have been conducted in the North-Western Provinces, and to the instructions given by him to the Zillah and Pergunnah Visitors, and contained in the Appendix to his First Report.

GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS NOT TO BE ESTABLISHED WHERE OTHER EFFICIENT
SCHOOLS ALREADY EXIST.

We desire to see local management under Government inspection, and assisted by grants-in-aid, taken advantage of wherever it is possible to do so, and that no Government Colleges or Schools shall be founded, for the future, in any district where a sufficient number of institutions exist, capable, with assistance from the State, of supplying the local demand for education. But, in order fully to carry out the views we have expressed with regard to the adequate provision of schools throughout the country, it will probably be necessary, for some years, to supply the wants of particular parts of India by the establishment, temporary support, and management of places of education of every class in districts where there is a little or no prospect of adequate local efforts being made for this purpose, but where, nevertheless, they are urgently required.

We look forward to the time when any general system of education entirely provided by Government may be discontinued, with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid, and when many of the existing Government institutions, especially those of the higher order, may be safely closed, or transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of, and aided by, the State. But it is far from our wish to check the spread of education in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay; and we, therefore, entirely confide in your discretion, and in that of the different local authorities while keeping this object steadily in view, to act with caution, and to be guided by special reference to the particular circumstances which affect the demand for education in different parts of India.

SCHOLARSHIPS TO BE ESTABLISHED.

The system of free and stipendiary Scholarships, to which we have already more than once referred as a connecting link between the different grades of educational institutions, will require some revision and extension in carrying out our enlarged educational plans. We wish to see the object proposed by Lord Auckland, in 1839, "of connecting the Zillah schools with the central colleges, by attaching to the latter Scholarships to which the best scholars of the former might be eligible," more fully carried out; and also, as the measures we now propose assume an organised form, that the same system may be adopted with regard to schools of a lower description, and that the best pupils of the inferior schools shall be provided for by means of Scholarships in schools of a higher order, so that superior talent in every class may receive that encouragement and development which it deserves.

The amount of the stipendiary Scholarships should be fixed at such a sum as may be considered sufficient for the maintenance of the holders of them at the Colleges or Schools to which they are attached, and which may often be at a distance from the home of the students. We think it desirable that this system of Scholarships should be carried out, not only in connexion with those places of education which are under the immediate superintendence of the State, but in all educational Institutions which will now be brought into our general system.

We are, at the same time, of opinion that the expenditure upon existing Government Scholarships, other than those to which we have referred, which amounts to a considerable sum, should be gradually reduced, with the requisite regard for the claims of the present holders of them. The encouragement of young men of ability, but of slender means, to pursue their studies, is no doubt both useful and benevolent, and we have no wish to interfere with the private endowments which have been devoted to so laudable an object, or to withdraw the additions which may have been made by us to any such endowments. But the funds at the disposal of Government are limited, and we doubt the expediency of applying them to the encouragement of the acquisition of learning, by means of stipends which not only far exceed the cost of the maintenance of the student, but in many cases are above what he could reasonably expect to gain on entering the public service, or any of the active professions of life.

We shall, however, offer encouragement to education which will tend to more practical results than those Scholarships. By giving to persons who possess an aptness for teaching, as well as the requisite standard of acquirements, and who are willing to devote themselves to the profession of schoolmaster, moderate monthly allowances for their support during the time which it may be requisite for them to pass in normal schools, or classes, in order to acquire the necessary training, we shall assist many deserving students to qualify themselves for a career of practical usefulness, and one which will secure them an honourable competence through life. We are also of opinion, that admission to places of instruction, which, like the Medical and Engineering Colleges, are maintained by the State, for the purpose of educating persons for special employment under Government, might be made the rewards of Industry and ability, and thus supply a practical encouragement to general education, similar to that which will be afforded by the educational service.

The establishment of Universities will offer considerable further inducements for the attainment of high proficiency, and thus supply the place of the present Senior Scholarships, with this additional advantage, that a greater number of subjects in which distinction can be gained will be offered to the choice of students than can be comprised in one uniform examination for a Scholarship, and that their studies will thus be practically directed into channels which will aid them in the different professions of life which they may afterwards adopt.

In England, when systematic attempts began to be made for the improvement of education, one of the chief defects was found to be the insufficient number of qualified Schoolmasters, and the imperfect method of teaching which prevailed. This led to the foundation of Normal and Model schools for the training of masters,

and the exemplification of the best methods for the organisation, discipline, and instruction of elementary schools. This deficiency has been the more palpably felt in India, as the difficulty of finding persons properly educated for the work of tuition is greater; and we desire to see the establishment, with as little delay as possible, of training schools, and classes, for masters, in each Presidency in India. It will probably be found that some of the existing institutions may be adapted, wholly or partially, to this purpose, with less difficulty than would attend the establishment of entirely new schools.

We cannot do better than refer you to the plan which has been adopted in Great Britain for this object, and which appears to us to be capable of easy adaptation to India. It mainly consists, as you will perceive on reference to the Minutes of the Committee of Council, copies of which we enclose, in the selection and stipend of pupil teachers (awarding a small payment to the masters of the schools in which they are employed, for their instruction out of school hours); their ultimate removal, if they prove worthy, to Normal Schools; the issue to them of certificates, on the completion of their training in those normal schools; and in securing to them a sufficient salary when they are afterwards employed as Schoolmasters. This system should be carried out in India, both in the Government colleges and schools, and, by means of grants-in-aid, in all institutions which are brought under Government inspection. The amount of the stipends to pupil teachers and students at normal schools should be fixed with great care. The former should receive moderate allowances rather above the sums which they would earn if they left school, and the stipends to the latter should be regulated by the same principle which we have laid down with respect to scholarships.

You will be called upon, in carrying these measures into effect, to take into consideration the position and prospects of the numerous class of natives of India who are ready to undertake the important duty of educating their fellow-countrymen. The late extension of the pension regulations of 1831 to the educational service may require to be adapted to the revised regulations in this respect; and our wish is that the profession of schoolmaster may, for the future, afford inducements to the natives of India such as are held out in other branches of the public service. The provision of such a class of schoolmasters as we wish to see must be a work of time; and, in encouraging the "indigenous schools," our present aim should be to improve the teachers whom we find in possession, and to take care not to provoke the hostility of this class of persons, whose influence is so great over the minds of the lower classes, by superseding them where it is possible to avoid it. They should, moreover, be encouraged to attend the normal schools and classes which may hereafter be instituted for this class of teachers.

PREPARATION OF VERNACULAR SCHOOL BOOKS.

Equal in importance to the training of schoolmasters is the provision of Vernacular School books, which shall provide European information to be the object of study in the lower classes of schools. Something has, no doubt, been done, of late years, towards this end, but more still remains to be done; and we believe that deficiencies might be readily and speedily supplied by the adoption of a course

recommended by Mr. M. Elphinstone in 1825, namely, "That the best translations of particular books, or the best elementary treatises in the specified languages, should be advertised for, and liberally rewarded."

The aim should be, in compilations, and original compositions, (to quote from one of Mr. Adam's valuable reports upon the state of education in Bengal,) "Not to translate European works into the words and idioms of the native languages, but so to combine the substance of European knowledge with native forms of thought and sentiment as to render the school books useful and attractive." We also refer with pleasure upon this point to some valuable observations by Mr. Reid, in his report which we have quoted before, more especially as regards instruction in Geography. It is obvious that the local peculiarities of different parts of India render it necessary that the class-books in each should be especially adapted to the feelings, sympathies, and history of the people; and we will only further remark upon this subject, that the Oriental Colleges, besides generally tending, as we have before observed, to the enrichment of the vernacular languages, may, we think, be made of great use in the translation of scientific works into those languages, as has already been done to some extent in the Delhi, Benares, and Poonah colleges.

ADMISSION TO PUBLIC SERVICE.

We have always been of opinion that the spread of education in India will produce a greater efficiency in all branches of administration, by enabling you to obtain the services of intelligent and trustworthy persons in every department of Government; and, on the other hand, we believe that the numerous vacancies of different kinds which have constantly to be filled up, may afford a great stimulus to education. The first object must be to select persons properly qualified to fill these situations; secondary to this is the consideration how far they may be so distributed as to encourage popular education.

The resolutions of our Governor-General in Council of the 10th October 1844, gave a general preference to well-educated over uneducated men in the admissions to the public service. We perceive, with much satisfaction, both from returns which we have recently received of the persons appointed since that year in the Revenue Department of Bengal, as well as from the educational reports from different parts of India, that a very considerable number of educated men have been employed under Government of late years; and we understand that it is often not so much the want of Government employment as the want of properly qualified persons to be employed by Government, which is felt, at the present time, in many parts of India.

We shall not enter upon the causes which, as we foresaw, have led to the failure of that part of the resolutions which provided for the annual submission to Government of lists of meritorious students. It is sufficient for our present purpose to observe that no more than 46 persons have been gazetted in Bengal up to this time, all of whom were students in the Government colleges. In the last year for which we have returns (1852), only two persons were so distinguished; and we can readily believe, with the Secretary to the Board of Revenue in Bengal, that young

men who have passed a difficult examination in the highest branches of philosophy and mathematics, are naturally disinclined to accept such employment as persons who intend to make the public service their profession must necessarily commence with.

PREFERENCE TO BE GIVEN TO EDUCATED NATIVES FOR GOVERNMENT EMPLOY.

The necessity for any such list will be done away with by the establishment of Universities, as the acquisition of a degree, and still more the attainment of university distinctions, will bring highly educated young men under the notice of Government. The resolutions in question will, therefore, require revision so as to adapt them practically to carry out our views upon this subject. What we desire is, that, where the other qualifications of the candidates for appointments under Government are equal, a person who has received a good education, irrespective of the place or manner in which it may have been acquired, should be preferred to one who has not; and that, even in lower situations, a man who can read and write be preferred to one who cannot, if he is equally eligible in other respects.

We also approve of the institution of examinations where practicable, to be simply and entirely tests of the fitness of candidates for the special duties of the various departments in which they are seeking employment, as has been the case in the Bombay Presidency. We confidently commit the encouragement of educated in preference to uneducated men to the different officers who are responsible for their selection; and we cannot interfere by any further regulations to fetter their free choice in a matter of which they bear the sole responsibility.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE.

We are sanguine enough to believe that some effect has already been produced by the improved education of the public service of India. The ability and integrity of a large and increasing number of the native judges, to whom the greater part of the civil jurisdiction in India is now committed, and the high estimation in which many among them are held by their fellow-countrymen, is, in our opinion, much to be attributed to the progress of education among these officers, and to their adoption along with it of that high moral tone which pervades the general literature of Europe. Nor is it among the higher officers alone that we have direct evidence of the advantage which the public derives from the employment of educated men. We quote from the last Report of the Dacca College with particular satisfaction, as we are aware that much of the happiness of the people of India depends upon the honesty of the officers of police:—"The best possible evidence has been furnished," say the local committee, "that some of the ex-students of the college of Dacca have completely succeeded in the arduous office of darogha. Krishna Chunder Dutt, employed as a darogha under the Magistrate of Howrah, in particular, is recommended for promotion, as having gained the respect and applause of all classes, who, though they may not practise, yet know how to admire real honesty, and integrity of purpose."

But, however large the number of appointments under Government may be, the views of the natives of India should be directed to the far wider and more im-

portant sphere of usefulness and advantage which a liberal education lays open to them ; and such practical benefits arising from improved knowledge should be constantly impressed upon them by those who know their feelings, and have influence or authority to advice or direct their efforts. We refer, as an example in this respect, with mingled pleasure and regret, to the eloquent addresses delivered by the late Mr. Bethune, when President of the Council of Education, to the students of Kishnagur and Dacca Colleges.

MEDICAL COLLEGES.

There are some other points connected with the general subject of education in India upon which we will now briefly remark. We have always regarded with special interest those educational institutions which have been directed towards training up the natives of India to particular professions, both with a view to their useful employment in the public service, and to enable them to pursue active and profitable occupations in life. The medical colleges in different parts of India have proved that, in despite of difficulties which appeared at first sight to be insurmountable, the highest attainments in medicine and surgery are within the reach of educated natives of India : we shall be ready to aid in the establishment and support of such places of instruction as the medical colleges of Calcutta and Bombay, in other parts of India. We have already alluded to the manner in which students should be supplied to these colleges, as well as to those for the training of civil engineers.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTION IN CIVIL ENGINEERING.

The success of the Thomason College of Civil Engineering at Roorkee has shown that, for the purpose of training up persons capable of carrying out the great works which are in progress under Government throughout India, and to qualify the natives of India for the exercise of a profession which, now that the system of railways and public works is being rapidly extended, will afford an opening for a very large number of persons, it is expedient that similar places for practical instruction in civil engineering should be established in other parts of India, and especially in the Presidency of Madras, where works of irrigation are so essential, not only to the prosperity of the country, but to the very existence of the people in times of drought and scarcity. The subject has been prominently brought under your notice in the recent reports of the Public Works Commissioners for the different Presidencies ; and we trust that immediate measures will be taken to supply a deficiency which is, at present, but too apparent.

SCHOOLS OF INDUSTRY AND DESIGN.

We may notice, in connexion with these two classes of institutions of an essentially practical character, the schools of industry and design, which have been set on foot from time to time in different parts of India. We have lately received a very encouraging report of that established by Dr. Hunter in Madras ; and we have also been informed that Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, with his accustomed munificence, has offered to lay out a very considerable sum upon a like School in Bombay. Such institutions as these will, in the end, be self-supporting ; but we are ready to assist

in their establishment by grants-in-aid for the supply of models, and other assistance which they may advantageously derive from the increased attention which has been paid of late years to such subjects in this country. We enclose you the copy of a report which we have received from Mr. Redgrave upon the progress of the Madras school, which may prove of great value in guiding the efforts of the promoters of any similar institutions which may hereafter be established in India. We have also perceived with satisfaction, that the attention of the Council of Education in Calcutta has been lately directed to the subject of attaching to each zillah school the means of teaching practical agriculture; for there is, as Dr. Mouat most truly observes, "no single advantage that could be afforded to the vast rural population of India that would equal the introduction of an improved system of agriculture."

The increasing desire of the Mahomedan population to acquire European knowledge has given us much satisfaction. We perceive that the Council of Education of Bengal has this subject under consideration, and we shall receive with favour any proposition which may appear to you to be likely to supply the wants of so large a portion of the natives of India.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

The importance of female education in India cannot be overrated; and we have observed with pleasure the evidence which is now afforded of an increased desire on the part of many of the natives of India to give a good education to their daughters. By this means a far greater proportional impulse is imparted to the educational and moral tone of the people than by the education of men. We have already observed that schools for females are included among those to which grants-in-aid may be given; and we cannot refrain from expressing our cordial sympathy with the efforts which are being made in this direction. Our Governor-General in Council has declared, in a communication to the Government of Bengal, that the Government ought to give to native female education in India its frank and cordial support; in this we heartily concur, and we especially approve of the bestowal of marks of honor upon such native gentlemen as Rao Bahadur Maganbhai Karamchand, who devoted 20,000 Rupees to the foundation of two native female schools in Ahmedabad, as by such means our desire for the extension of female education becomes generally known.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Considerable misapprehension appears to exist as to our views with respect to religious instruction in the Government institutions. Those institutions were founded for the benefit of the whole population of India; and, in order to effect their object, it was, and is, indispensable that the education conveyed in them should be exclusively secular. The Bible is, we understand, placed in the libraries of the colleges and schools, and the pupils are able freely to consult it. This is as it should be; and, moreover, we have no desire to prevent, or discourage, any explanations which the pupils may, of their own free will, ask from the masters upon the subject of the Christian religion, provided that such information be given out of school hours. Such instruction being entirely voluntary on both sides, it is necessary, in order to prevent the slightest suspicion of an intention on our part to

make use of the influence of Government for the purpose of proselytism, that no notice shall be taken of it by the inspectors in their periodical visits.

Having now finished the sketch that we proposed to give of the scheme for the encouragement of education in India, which we desire to see gradually brought into operation, we proceed to make some observations upon the state of education in the several Presidencies, and to point out the parts of our general plan which are most deficient in each.

In Bengal, education through the medium of the English language has arrived at a higher point than in any other part of India. We are glad to receive constant evidence of an increasing demand for such an education, and of the readiness of the natives of different districts to exert themselves for the sake of obtaining it. There are now five Government Anglo-Vernacular colleges; and zillah schools have been established in nearly every district. We confidently expect that the introduction of the system of grants-in-aid will very largely increase the number of schools of a superior order; and we hope that, before long, sufficient provision may be found to exist in many parts of the country for the education of the middle and higher classes, independent of the Government institutions, which may then be closed, as has been already the case in Burdwan, in consequence of the enlightened conduct of the Rajah of Burdwan, or they may be transferred to local management.

Very little has, however, been hitherto done in Bengal for the education of the mass of the people, especially for their instruction through the medium of the vernacular languages. A few vernacular schools were founded by Government in 1844, of which only 33 now remain, with 1,400 pupils, and, upon their transfer, in April 1852, from the charge of the Board of Revenue to that of the Council of Education, it appeared that "they were in a languishing state, and had not fulfilled the expectations formed on their establishment."

We have perused, with considerable interest, the report of Mr. Robinson, Inspector of the Assam schools, of which there appear to be 74, with upwards of 3,000 pupils. Mr. Robinson's suggestions for the improvement of the system under which they are now managed appear to us to be worthy of consideration, and to approach very nearly to the principles upon which vernacular education has been encouraged in the North-Western Provinces. We shall be prepared to sanction such measures as you may approve of, to carry out Mr. Robinson's views.

But the attention of the Government of Bengal should be seriously directed to the consideration of some plan for the encouragement of indigenous schools, and for the education of the lower classes, which, like that of Mr. Thomason in the North-Western Provinces, may bring the benefits of education practically before them, and assist and direct their efforts. We are aware that the object held out by the Government of Agra to induce the agricultural classes to improve their education does not exist in Bengal; but we cannot doubt that there may be found other similar solid advantages attending elementary knowledge, which can be plainly and practically made apparent to the understandings and interests of the lower classes of Bengal.

We perceive that the scheme of study pursued in the Oriental colleges of Bengal is under the consideration of the Council of education, and it appears that they are in an unsatisfactory condition. We have already sufficiently indicated our views as to those colleges, and we should be glad to see them placed upon such a footing as may make them of greater practical utility. The points which you have referred to us, in your letter of the 5th of May, relative to the establishment of a Presidency College in Calcutta, will form the subject of a separate communication.

In the North-western Provinces the demand for education is so limited by circumstances fully detailed by the Lieutenant-Governor in one of his early reports, that it will probably be long before private efforts will become energetic enough to supply the place of the establishment, support, and management, by Government, of places of instruction of the highest grade, where there may be a sufficient reason for their institution.

At the same time, the system for the promotion of general education throughout the country, by means of the inspection and encouragement of indigenous schools, has laid the foundation of a great advancement in the education of the lower classes. Mr. Thomason ascertained, from statistical information, the lamentable state of ignorance in which the people were sunk, while the registration of land, which is necessary under the revenue settlement of the North-Western Provinces, appeared to him to offer the stimulus of a direct interest for the acquisition of so much knowledge, at least of reading and writing, of the simple rules of arithmetic, and of land measurement, as would enable each man to look after his own rights.

He therefore organised a system of encouragement of indigenous schools, by means of a constant inspection by zillah and pergunnah visitors, under the superintendence of a visitor-general; while, at the head-quarters of each tahsildar, a school was established for the purpose of teaching "reading and writing the vernacular languages, both Urdu and Hindi accounts, and the mensuration of land." A school-house is provided by Government, and the masters of the Tahsili schools receive a small salary, and are further entitled to the tuition fees paid by the pupils, of whom none are educated gratuitously, except "on recommendations given by village schoolmasters who may be on the visitor's list." A certain sum is annually allotted to each zillah for the reward of deserving teachers and scholars; and the attention of the visitor-general was expressly directed to the preparation of elementary school-books in the vernacular languages, which are sold through the agency of the zillah and the pergunnah visitors. We shall be prepared to sanction the gradual extension of some such system as this to the other districts of the Agra Presidency, and we have already referred to it as the model by which the efforts of other Presidencies for the same object should be guided.

In the Presidency of Bombay the character of the education conveyed in the Anglo-vernacular colleges is almost, if not quite, equal to that in Bengal; and the Elphinstone Institution is an instance of a college conducted in the main upon the principle of grant-in-aid, which we desire to see more extensively carried out. Considerable attention has also been paid in Bombay to education, through the medium of the vernacular languages. It appears that 216 vernacular schools are under the

management of the Board of Education, and that the number of pupils attending them is more than 12,000. There are three Inspectors of the district schools, one of whom (Mahadeo Govind Shastre) is a native of India. The schools are reported to be improving, and masters trained in the Government colleges have been recently appointed to some of them with the happiest effects. These results are very creditable to the Presidency of Bombay; and we trust that each Government school will now be made a centre from which the indigenous schools of the adjacent districts may be inspected and encouraged.

As the new revenue settlement is extended in the Bombay Presidency, there will, we apprehend, be found an inducement precisely similar to that which has been taken advantage of by Mr. Thomason, to make it the interest of the agricultural classes to acquire so much knowledge as will enable them to check the returns of the village accountants. We have learnt with satisfaction that the subject of gradually making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of these hereditary officers is under the consideration of the Government of Bombay, and that a practical educational test is now insisted upon for persons employed in many offices under Government.

MADRAS, MISSIONARY & INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.

In Madras, where little has yet been done by Government to promote the education of the mass of the people, we can only remark with satisfaction that the educational efforts of Christian missionaries have been more successful among the Tamil population than in any other part of India; and that the Presidency of Madras offers a fair field for the adoption of our scheme of education in its integrity, by founding Government Anglo-vernacular institutions only where no such places of instruction at present exist, which might, by grants-in-aid and other assistance, adequately supply the educational wants of the people. We also perceive with satisfaction that Mr. Daniel Elliott, in a recent and most able minute upon the subject of education, has stated that Mr. Thomason's plan for the encouragement of indigenous schools might readily be introduced into the Madras Presidency, where the Ryotwari settlement offers a similar practical inducement to the people for the acquisition of elementary knowledge.

We have now concluded the observations which we think it is necessary to address to you upon the subject of the education of the natives of India. We have declared that our object is to extend European knowledge throughout all classes of the people. We have shown that this object must be effected by means of the English language in the higher branches of instruction, and by that of the vernacular languages of India to the great mass of the people. We have directed such a system of general superintendence and inspection by Government to be established, as will, if properly carried out, give efficiency and uniformity to your efforts. We propose by the institution of universities to provide the highest test and encouragement of a liberal education. By sanctioning grants-in-aid of private efforts, we hope to call to the assistance of Government private exertions and private liberality. The higher classes will now be gradually called upon to depend more upon themselves; and your attention has been more especially directed to the education of the middle and

lower classes, both by the establishment of fitting schools for this purpose, and by means of a careful encouragement of the native schools which exist, and have existed from time immemorial, in every village, and none of which perhaps cannot in some degree be made available to the end we have in view. We have noticed some particular points connected with education, and we have reviewed the condition of the different Presidencies in this respect, with a desire to point out what should be imitated, and what is wanting, in each.

We have only to add, in conclusion, that we commit this subject to you with a sincere belief that you will cordially co-operate with us in endeavouring to effect the great object we have in hand, and that we desire it should be authoritatively communicated to the principal officers of every district in India, that henceforth they are to consider it to be an important part of their duty, not only in that social intercourse with the natives of India, which we always learn with pleasure that they maintain, but also with all the influence of their high position, to aid in the extension of education, and to support the inspectors of schools by every means in their power.

We believe that the measures we have determined upon are calculated to extend the benefits of education throughout India; but, at the same time, we must add that we are not sanguine enough to expect any sudden, or even speedy, results to follow from their adoption. To imbue a vast, and ignorant, population with a general desire for knowledge, and to take advantage of that desire when excited to improve the means for diffusing education amongst them, must be a work of many years; which, by the blessing of Divine Providence, may largely conduce to the moral and intellectual improvement of the mass of the natives of India.

As a Government, we can do no more than direct the efforts of the people, and aid them wherever they appear to require most assistance. The result depends more upon them than upon us; and although we are fully aware that the measures we have now adopted will involve in the end a much larger expenditure upon education from the revenues of India, or, in other words, from the taxation of the people of India, than is at present so applied, we are convinced, with Sir Thomas Munro, in words used many years since, that any expense which may be incurred for this object, "will be amply re-paid by the improvement of the country; for the general diffusion of knowledge is inseparably followed by more orderly habits, by increasing industry, by a taste for the comforts of life, by exertion to acquire them, and by the growing prosperity of the people.

We are, &c.

(Signed)

J. OLIPHANT.

W. J. EASTWICK.

E. MACNAGHTEN.

R. D. MANGLES.

C. MILLS.

J. P. WILLOUGHBY.

R. ELLICE.

J. H. ASTELL.

J. W. HOGG.

F. CURRIE.

APPENDIX D.

EDUCATIONAL DESPATCH, No. 4, dated India Office, London,

7th April 1859.

MY LORD,

The time seems to have arrived when some examination may be instituted into the operation of the orders despatched from this country in 1854 for the prosecution of measures on a more extended scale for promoting Education in India. Such an examination seems more especially required since the measures, and particularly the more recent measures, of Government for the promotion of Education have been alleged to be among the causes which have brought about the recent outbreak in the army of Bengal, and the disquietude and apprehension which are believed to have prevailed in some portions of Her Majesty's Indian territories.

The improvement and far wider extension of Education, both English and vernacular, having been the general objects of the Despatch of 1854, the means prescribed for the accomplishment of those objects were the constitution of a separate department of the Administration for the work of Education; the institution of universities at the several Presidency towns; the establishment of training institutions for raising up teachers for the various classes of schools; the maintenance of the existing Government Colleges and schools of a high order, and the increase of their number when necessary; the establishment of additional zillah or middle schools; increased attention to vernacular schools for elementary education, including the indigenous schools already existing throughout the country; and, finally, the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid, under which the efforts of private individuals and of local communities would be stimulated and encouraged by pecuniary grants from Government, in consideration of a good secular Education being afforded in the aided schools.

FORMATION OF AN EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.

The first step taken in execution of the Court's instructions was the formation of the establishments by means of which the desired extension was to be given to the work of Education; an officer, with the title of Director of Public Instruction, was accordingly appointed to each of the Presidencies and Lieutenant Governorships, and to the Punjab, to whom the superintendence of the work of Education was

intrusted; and under these officers a staff of inspectors and sub-inspectors was

Authorised Establishments.

Bengal.....	Rs. 13,711	per mensem.
North West Provinces..	8,115	„
Punjab	5,335	„
Madras.....	8,821	„
Bombay including Sindh.,	8,926	„

Rs....44,908

Or, Rs. 5,38,896 per annum.

organised, who were, in effect, to act in their several spheres as the local representatives of the Director. The annual cost of these controlling establishments is approximately shown in the margin.

As regards the persons by whom appointments in the Department of Education are to be held, it was thought by the Court of Directors that the first heads of the department,

as well as some of the Inspectors, should be members of the Civil Service, both to show the importance attached to the subject of Education and the estimation in which it was desired that the officers of the department should be held, and because among the members of that service the best qualified persons would be most likely to be met with. But at the same time it was directed that none of the appointments should be reserved for members of the covenanted service, to the exclusion of others, either Europeans or natives, who might be better qualified to fill them; and the great importance was pointed out of selecting persons not only qualified for the duties of the Department, but calculated also to command the confidence of the natives. The spirit of the instructions of the Court of Directors with regard to the classes from whom the officers of the department were to be selected, appears to have been duly observed. In Bengal, the North Western Provinces, Madras, and Bombay, members of the civil service were in the first instance appointed Directors of Public Instruction; and the several appointments of Inspectors were filled indiscriminately by civil servants, military and medical officers, and individuals unconnected with any of those services. In the Punjab, the office of Director has from the first been held by a gentleman who was at the time of his nomination in the military service, but who retired from the army immediately on appointment. In Bombay, the first Director, Mr. Erskine, has been succeeded by a gentleman who was previously a practising barrister; and among the present Inspectors it is believed that there are not in all the Presidencies more than two or three members of the civil service.

ESTABLISHMENT OF UNIVERSITIES.

The Universities have been constituted, as desired by the Court, on the general plan of the University of London. The scheme provides for an entrance examination; for the training of the passed candidates at affiliated institutions; for the grant of degrees in arts, medicine, law, and civil engineering; and for the examination for honours of those who have obtained the degree of bachelor of arts, the passing of which will carry with it the higher degree of master of arts.

GOVERNMENT COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

Apart from the colleges for special branches of study, such as medicine and civil engineering, there were the following Government Colleges in Bengal when

the orders of 1854 were brought into operation, *viz.*, the Presidency College, which had just been remodelled and placed on a footing of great efficiency, the Sanskrit or Hindoo College, and the Madrissa or Mahomedan College at Calcutta, and Colleges at Berhampore, Dacca, Hooghly, and Kishnagur. The Sanscrit College and the Madrissa are specially, and in the first instance were exclusively, intended for the cultivation of Oriental learning; the other colleges are designed for the promotion and advancement of general Education through the medium of the English language. In the North Western Provinces Government colleges existed at Agra, Delhi, Benares, and Bareilly, all of which were constituted to afford Education of a high order through the medium of the English language; the study of Sanscrit being cultivated, however, with great success at Benares, and the study of the vernacular forming part of the course at all the colleges. In the Madras Presidency the only Government institution at which Education of an advanced character was afforded, was the "University," or, as it might more properly have been designated, the High School at Madras. At Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution at the Presidency, and the college at Poona, were institutions where the means of Education had been provided on a liberal scale by means of English professors of high qualifications.

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In Madras the High School has been remodelled, and formed into an Institution somewhat resembling the Presidency College at Calcutta, but in consequence of the less advanced state of education throughout the Presidency generally, the Madras College does not take so high a range, and partakes less of a collegiate character. In the provinces, four provincial schools have been established, which, it is hoped, will eventually be formed into provincial colleges, and which will give an education qualifying for admission into the higher institution at Madras.

* * * *

ENGLISH AND ANGLO-VERNACULAR SCHOOLS.

It was provided by the scheme of 1854, that below the colleges there should be classes of schools in regular gradations, which should be placed in connexion with the colleges and with each other by means of scholarships, to be held in the superior institutions by pupils gaining them at the schools immediately below them.

The Government schools next in order to the colleges, and from which the supply of pupils for these institutions would naturally come, are not, in all the Presidencies, formed precisely on the same plan, nor do they in all localities bear the same designation, being denominated respectively Provincial Schools, Collegiate Schools, High Schools, Zillah Schools, or merely Government Anglo-vernacular Schools. In Bengal the expense of these schools is for the most part defrayed wholly from the public revenues, except so far as it may be met by the payments of the pupils, and other small sources of income which arise at some of the schools. In the North Western Provinces few schools of this class are maintained, the question of the best mode of supplying the larger towns generally with schools not having been determined by Government when the recent disturbances broke out. Of the existing schools, the greater number are supported by missionaries, to a few of which grants-in-aid had been made previously to the outbreak of the mutiny. In Madras four provincial schools and a few Zillah schools have been constituted;

but Education of the character which these classes of schools are designed to afford is provided to a considerable extent by missionary societies, whose schools since the grant-in-aid system has been in operation, have been extended and improved by means of grants from Government. In Bombay there are four schools, and which might perhaps rank with the Madras provincial schools, and which are fitted to prepare pupils for entrance into the college; and there are besides, Government English or Anglo-vernacular schools in many of the districts, corresponding in their general aim and scope with the zillah schools of Bengal.

Few additions, except in the Madras Presidency, have as yet been made to the number of Government English and Anglo-vernacular schools since 1854. The schools, however, are believed to be generally popular, and the numbers attending them show, perhaps, as great an increase as could have been expected. On the whole, it may be assumed, with respect to this class of schools, that though there is a considerable difference in the efficiency of the schools which it comprises, and though the line which separates it from the class of schools next below it may not be very clearly marked, it nevertheless, so far as the influence of the schools extends, constitutes an effective link in that chain of educational institutions which it was the desire of the Court of Directors to render general throughout India.

VERNACULAR SCHOOLS.

Measures for the extension and improvement of Vernacular Education had been some time in progress, with more or less activity, in different parts of India, when the Home Authorities in 1854, declared their wishes for the prosecution of the object in a more systematic manner, and placed the subject on a level, in point of importance, with that of the instruction to be afforded through the medium of the English language

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If it must be admitted that, previously to 1854, the subject of Vernacular Education had not received in every part of India the full amount of attention which it merited, there can be no doubt that, since the wishes of the Home Authorities have been so plainly declared, the officers of the Department of Education, acting under the orders of the several Governments have spared no pains to bring into operation, throughout the districts entrusted to their superintendence, such measures as appeared most likely to place within reach of the general population the means of obtaining an Education suited to their circumstances in life.

The modes of action which have been adopted in the several Presidencies exhibit, however, considerable diversity.

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NORMAL SCHOOLS.

From the time that measures have been taken for promoting the progress of Education in India, great difficulty has been experienced from the want of efficient masters for the various classes of schools. Masters have from time to time been sent out from England, not only for the higher appointments, but for the charge of middle schools; but it was evident to those engaged in the work of Education, that even for this last class of schools it would be impossible, except at an inordinate

cost, to supply the requisite number from this country, while for the vernacular schools a local supply was manifestly indispensable. A normal class had accordingly been commenced at Bombay, and one had been included in the proposed arrangements at Madras, when the Court's orders of 1854 reached India enjoining the establishment of normal schools in each Presidency, and promising to send out on application trained masters from this country to conduct them.

The normal schools which have since been established have been confined almost exclusively to those for vernacular teachers. Of these, four have been established in Bengal, attended, in all, by 258 pupils. In the North Western Provinces a normal class has been in operation at Benares, at which the masters of vernacular schools in that division attended for instruction and for practice; and sanction had been given, previously to the outbreak, to the establishment of training schools for vernacular masters at Agra, and at two other places within the Provinces. The normal school at Madras has been constituted to furnish masters both for Anglo-vernacular and for vernacular schools. It has been placed on an efficient footing, having a model school and a practising school attached to it, and there is every prospect that it will turn out teachers well qualified to give instruction to the several classes of schools which it is designed to supply. No separate training institution has yet been established at Bombay, but normal classes have been formed in connection with the colleges and principal English schools within the Presidency, most of which are intended to supply teachers for Anglo-vernacular as well as for vernacular schools.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

It is well known that, even including the result of missionary exertions, little progress has as yet been made with Female Education in India. The late Mr. Drinkwater Bethune, then President of the Council of Education, established at his own expense a school at Calcutta for Hindoo Female children of the higher classes in 1850. The school was taken up and supported by the Marquis of Dalhousie after Mr. Bethune's death; and on his Lordship's leaving India it was assumed by Government, and is now supported at the Public expense. It was at first attended by about 34 girls, but it did not afterwards show very great signs of vitality. It was placed in 1856 under a special committee of Hindoo gentlemen, presided over by Mr. Cecil Beadon, one of the Secretaries to the Government of India, but no report has been received of the result of this arrangement.

* * * * *

Although the special interest of the Home Authorities, and of the several Governments in India, in the work of Female Education has been plainly declared, and though there is no reason to doubt that the officers of the department have availed themselves of such opportunities as offered, to promote the object, it would not appear that, except in the case of the Agra and neighbouring districts, any active measures have been taken by the Department of Education for the establishment of female schools.

GRANT-IN-AID SYSTEM.

In addition to the means provided directly by Government for affording Education to the different classes of the community, colleges and schools, have for many

years been maintained with the same object by individuals, associations, or local communities, to some of which allusion has already been made. The liberality shown by the natives in some instances in the maintenance of educational institutions, and the benefits which had resulted from the educational efforts of Christian associations, received recognition in the 49th and 50th paras. of the Education Despatch of July 1854; and in the same Despatch sanction was given to the principle of grant-in-aid, as the best and most effectual mode of calling out private efforts in aid of Education to a still greater extent.

The introduction of this system was authorised from a regard to "the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done, in order to provide adequate means for "the Education of the natives of India," and it was expected "that the plan of "thus drawing support from local sources in addition to contributions from the State would result "in a far more rapid progress of Education than would follow a mere increase of expenditure by the Government, while it "possesses the additional advantage of fostering a spirit of reliance upon local exertions, and combination, for local purposes, which is of itself of no mean importance."

The system, as authorised for India, was to be "based on an entire abstinence "from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the schools assisted," "and "was to be given (within certain limits) to all schools which impart a good "secular Education, provided they are under adequate local* management, are duly "open to Government inspection, and are subjected to any other rules which may "be prescribed by the Government Notifications." In accordance with these views, it was suggested that notifications should be promulgated announcing the terms on which grants-in-aid would be made; and that in such notifications the principle of perfect religious neutrality, on which the grants were to be awarded should be distinctly asserted."

The injunctions of the Court of Directors, as to the principles on which the grant-in-aid system was to be brought into operation, seem to have been carefully attended to in drafting the rules in accordance with which the grants were to be made, and every endeavour appears, to have been used to carry out in practice the principle of perfect religious neutrality on which the system was declared to be based.

The system has been applied in somewhat differing ways in the several Presidencies and divisions of territory in India. In some of the educational districts in Bengal, as already stated, it has been extensively brought into operation in connexion with Vernacular schools, in which cases it has been the native promoters of the school who have sought the grants from Government. In the North Western Provinces, the assistance of Government was afforded to Vernacular Education under

* This was explained to mean "one or more persons, such as private patrons, "voluntary subscribers, or the trustees of endowments, who will undertake the "general superintendence of the school, and be answerable for its permanence for "some given time."

special regulations, and the "grant-in-aid" system, technically so called, had up to the time of the mutiny been applied only to a few schools affording a superior Education.* In Madras the grants under the grant-in-aid rules have been for the most part made to schools of a higher class, the expense of such vernacular schools as have yet been provided being met in another way. In Bombay the information as to the actual carrying out of the system is insufficient to show the classes of schools which have benefited by it.

The private institutions for Education of a higher order are throughout India, as a general rule, under European management. In the case of many of these institutions the grant-in-aid system has been made use of for the extension and improvement of the means of instruction. The conductors of such schools, both English and Anglo-vernacular, have, generally speaking, shown no indisposition to avail themselves of Government assistance on the prescribed terms, and the efficiency and consequent usefulness of the aided schools has, by means of the grants, been greatly promoted. The higher English schools which have received grants, are, for the most part, maintained in connection with missionary bodies, for the obvious reason that there are few other private schools existing in India at which a liberal English Education is afforded. Assistance for the establishment or improvement of Anglo-Vernacular schools has, on the other hand, been obtained to a great extent by natives, either individually or in association; and in some cases proposals have been made by natives with a view to the formation of higher or collegiate schools, where the instruction was to be conveyed by means of English, though, from different causes, no such institutions have yet been formed. But while the European managers of schools have freely accepted grants-in-aid from Government, and equal readiness have been shown by the native community to seek assistance in the formation of schools, where instruction in English may be

* Amount of Grants-in-aid sanctioned up to 30th April 1857 :

In Bengal :		RS.
Missionary schools.....	9,828	
Other schools.....	68,604	
	<hr/>	
	78,432	per annum.
In Madras :		RS.
Missionary schools.....	28,597	
Other schools.....	5,613	
	<hr/>	
	34,210	per annum.

No statements received from the North Western Provinces and Bombay. In Bengal the grants-in-aid have been further arranged in a tabular form, as follows :

	RS.
English schools.....	35,916
Anglo-Vernacular schools.....	19,850
Vernacular schools.....	23,616

afforded, no great alacrity appears to have been shown by the natives in making the necessary local efforts for securing the aid of Government, under the grant-in-aid rules, for the promotion of Vernacular Education.

I now proceed to offer some observations on the facts which have been brought out in the preceding review; and in doing so I shall, as far as possible, follow the order in which the several branches of the subject are placed in the third paragraph of this Despatch.

CONSTITUTION OF THE NEW DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The Educational Department seems to have been framed in general accordance with the instructions of the Court of Directors. The cost of the new establishments for managing the department is no doubt large, as compared with the expenditure on the direct work of instruction; and though Her Majesty's Government are not prepared to pronounce it excessive, nevertheless they are desirous that you should review the existing establishments, and carefully consider whether the cost of the controlling establishments* bears more than a fair proportion to the expenditure of Government on direct measures for instruction, and whether such cost is properly susceptible of reduction. In considering this question, it must be borne in mind that the duty of the controlling officers is not merely to superintend the institutions directly supported by Government, but that it is the business of the department to exercise a close scrutiny into all the agencies in operation throughout the country for the instruction of the people, to point out deficiencies wherever they exist, to suggest remedies to Government, and bring the advantages of Education before the minds of the various classes of the community; to act as the channel of communication on the subject between Government and the community at large, and generally to stimulate and promote, under the prescribed rules, all measures having for their object the secular education of the people. It is evident that a very inadequate opinion would be formed of the value of the agency responsible for these varied duties from a mere comparison of its cost with that of the existing educational institutions of Government, especially when it is considered that it has been necessary to constitute the controlling establishments at once on a complete footing, while the establishments for direct instruction are naturally of slower growth.

After a full consideration of the grounds on which the Court of Directors formerly gave their sanction, as a temporary arrangement, to the employment of covenanted civil servants in the Department of Education, Her Majesty's Government are, on the whole, of opinion that, as a general rule, all appointments in the Department of Education should be filled by individuals unconnected with the service of Government, either civil or military. It is not their wish that officers now in the department should be disturbed for the sole purpose of carrying out this rule; and they are aware that difficulty might at present be experienced in finding well qualified persons, unconnected with the regular services, to fill vacant offices in the department. But

*Actual expenditure on education out of the Government Treasury in 1856-57 233,890*l*. Authorised amount of controlling establishments, which is probably in excess of the sum actually disbursed, 53,890*l*.

it is their desire that the rule now prescribed be kept steadily in view, and that every encouragement be given to persons of education to enter the educational service, even in the lower grades, by making it known that in the nominations to the higher offices in the department, a preference will hereafter be given to those who may so enter it, if competent to discharge the duties.

ESTABLISHMENT OF UNIVERSITIES.

The establishment of Universities was not a measure calculated, *per se*, to excite apprehensions in the native mind. It did not, in fact, bring any new principle into operation, being little more than an expansion of the arrangements which had, for many years, been in operation for testing the powers and attainments of the young men educated in the colleges and more advanced schools. No teaching of any sort was proposed to be given in connexion with the Universities; and on the only point in connexion with the examinations for degrees, in respect to which any difficulty might have arisen, *viz.*, that of reckoning the marks obtained by those candidates for honours who might voluntarily submit themselves to examination in Paley's "Evidences of Christianity," and Butler's "Analogy of Revealed Religion;" the Home authorities determined that such computation should not be allowed, and, thus removed all possible ground of misapprehension.

No special instructions on the subject of the Universities seem at present, to be called for.

TRAINING SCHOOLS.

The institution of training schools does not seem to have been carried out to the extent contemplated by the Court of Directors. Her Majesty's Government agree in the remarks contained in the Despatch of July 1854, as to the necessity of such institutions for Anglo-vernacular as well as for vernacular schools. All reports concur as to the want of trained masters in the schools in which English is taught, and as to the frequent inefficiency of the English teaching from the want of masters well acquainted with the language. It seems to be very seldom found practicable to secure, in India, the services of competent men; and the engagement of persons in this country appears, at present, the only available means of supplying the deficiency. This is evidently an expensive mode of proceeding; and it may be hoped that, at no distant period, institutions may be in operation at all the Presidencies, calculated to supply masters for all classes of schools, and thus, in time, greatly to limit, if not altogether to obviate, the necessity of recruiting the educational service by means of engagements made in this country. I request that a definite statement may be furnished of the measures which you may propose to take for this purpose.

GOVERNMENT COLLEGES.

The Government Anglo-vernacular colleges appear, on the whole, to be in a satisfactory state; and in those cases where defects have been found to exist, measures are in progress for placing the institutions on a better footing.

ENGLISH AND ANGLO-VERNACULAR SCHOOLS.

The Government English and Anglo-vernacular schools seem to be generally in a satisfactory state, and to be not unpopular with the native community. By

the order of 1854, the extension of a graduated system of these schools throughout the provinces of India was proposed to be accomplished, by the establishment of a limited number of Government institutions of different grades, or preferentially, by the encouragement of schools on the grant-in-aid plan; it being hoped that private schools, aided by Government, would eventually take the place, universally, of the several classes of Government institutions. I see no reason to make any change in the orders applicable to the class of schools which comes under this heading.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

It appears that both the difficulties and the importance of Female Education are adequately appreciated by the officers of the Department of Education, and no present orders respecting it seem, therefore, to be required; but Her Majesty's Government are desirous of being made acquainted with the opinion which you may be led to form as to the genuineness of the change of feeling which appears, in some localities, to have taken place regarding it, and as to the nature and degree of the influence which may safely and properly be exerted by the officers of the Department of Education to promote the extension of schools for females.

VERNACULAR EDUCATION.

With regard to Vernacular Education, it appears that, with the exception of the North-Western Provinces, where provision had been made for the gradual extension of schools over the entire country, by the combined operation of Mr. Thomason's scheme of Tahseel-e schools and the Hulkabundee system—no general plan had been decided on in any of the Presidencies. It is obvious that no general scheme of popular education could be framed which would be suitable for all parts of India; but, in accordance with the course followed in the North-Western Provinces by Mr. Thomason, and in some of the Bengal districts by Mr. Woodrow, it is most important to make the greatest possible use of existing schools, and of the masters, to whom, however inefficient as teachers, the people have been accustomed to look up with respect.

GRANTS-IN-AID TO VERNACULAR SCHOOLS.

The difficulties experienced by the officers of the Department of Education in establishing a general system of popular schools on the basis of the existing rules for the administration of grants-in-aid, has been already referred to. But apart from the difficulty, and in many cases the impossibility, of obtaining the local support required for the establishment of a school under the grant-in-aid system, it cannot be denied that the mere requisitions made for the purpose by the officers of the Education Department may have a tendency not only to create a prejudice against Education, but also to render the Government itself unpopular. And, besides the unpopularity likely to arise from the demands on the poorer members of the community, made in the way either of persuasion or of authority, there can be no doubt, that the dignity of the Government is compromised by its officers appearing in the light of importunate and often unsuccessful applicants for pecuniary contributions, for objects which the Government is confessedly very anxious to promote.

On the whole, Her Majesty's Government can entertain little doubt that the grant-in-aid system, as hitherto in force, is unsuited to the supply of Vernacular Education to the masses of the population; and it appears to them, so far as they have been able to form an opinion, that the means of elementary Education should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, according to some one of the plans in operation in Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, or by such modification of those schemes as may commend itself to the several local Governments as best suited to the circumstances of different localities. Assuming that the task of providing the means of elementary Vernacular Education for those who are unable to procure it for themselves, is to be undertaken by the State, they are strongly of opinion that the officers of the Department of Education should be relieved from the onerous and invidious task of soliciting contributions for the support of these schools from classes whose means for the most part are extremely limited, and whose appreciation of the advantages of Education does not dispose them to make sacrifices for obtaining it.

As regards the source from which the funds for elementary Education should be obtained, it has been on different occasions proposed by officers connected with Education that, in order to avoid the difficulties experienced in obtaining voluntary local support, an Education rate should be imposed, from which the cost of all schools throughout the country should be defrayed. And other officers who have considered India to be as yet unprepared for such a measure, have regarded other arrangements as merely temporary and palliative, and the levy of a compulsory rate as the only really effective step to be taken for permanently supplying the deficiency.

The appropriation of a fixed proportion of the annual value of the land to the purpose of providing such means of education for the population immediately connected with the land, seems *per se*, unobjectionable; and the application of a percentage for the construction and maintenance of roads appears to afford a suitable precedent for such an impost. In the North-Western Provinces the principle has already been acted on, though the plan has there been subjected to the important modification that the Government shares the burden with the landholder, and that the consent of the latter shall be a necessary condition to the introduction of the arrangement in any locality. The several existing Inspectors of Schools in Bengal are of opinion that an Education rate might without difficulty be introduced into that Presidency, and it seems not improbable that the levy of such a rate under the direct authority of the Government would be acquiesced in with far more readiness and with less dislike than a nominally voluntary rate proposed by the local officers.

I am desirous that, after due communication with the several local Governments, you should carefully consider the subjects just discussed, and should furnish me with your opinion as to the necessity of relinquishing the existing grant-in-aid system, as a means of providing popular vernacular schools throughout the country, and as to the expediency of imposing a special rate to defray the expense of schools for the rural population.

GRANTS-IN-AID TO ENGLISH AND ANGLO-VERNACLULAR SCHOOLS.

The peculiar objections which have been shown to attach to the grant-in-aid system, when applied to Vernacular Education, do not appear to extend to it in connexion with English and Anglo-vernacular schools. The conductors of existing schools of these kinds are generally anxious to obtain grants, and the Government and its officers are therefore not placed in the unbecoming position of unsuccessful applicants for pecuniary contributions towards a public object which the Government is known to be desirous to promote, but which its influence is seen to be unable to secure.

On the other hand, the comparatively small number of scholars in the Government colleges and schools sufficiently shews what ample scope there is for every agency which can be brought into the field of educational labour, and the expediency of making use of, and fostering all such agency as is likely to engage in the work with earnestness and efficiency. There can be no doubt of the great advantage of promoting in the native community a spirit of self-reliance, in opposition to the habit of depending on Government and its officers for the supply of local wants; and if Government shall have undertaken the responsibility of placing within reach of the general population the means of a simple elementary Education, those individuals or classes who require more than this may, as a general rule, be left to exert themselves to procure it, with or without the assistance of Government.

You are aware that, besides the other advantages of the plan of grants-in-aid, the authors of the Despatch of 1854 regarded the system as carrying out, in the most effectual manner, the principle of perfect religious neutrality, and as solving in the best practicable way various difficult questions connected with education, arising out of the peculiar position of the British Government in India. If, on the one hand, by the natural operation of the system, grants have been made to missionary societies, assistance has, on the other, been extended to schools under the management of natives, whether Hindoo or Mahomedan; the principle of perfect neutrality in matters of religion, on which the system has been brought into operation in India, has been laid down and promulgated with unmistakeable distinctness in the published rules. The amount contributed to missionary institutions bears but a small proportion to the general expenditure on Education; and besides the numerous native schools established under the grant-in-aid system in the Mofussil, the Sanscrit College and the Madrisa are maintained in their integrity at Calcutta, for the exclusive benefit of the members of the Hindoo and Mahomedan communities respectively.

But as it has been alleged that, notwithstanding these precautions, jealousy has been excited by the assistance indirectly extended, through the medium of grants-in-aid, to missionary teaching, I am anxious to learn your opinion as to the manner in which, on the whole, the grant-in-aid system operates; as to the necessity of making any, or what, alterations in the existing rules, and as to the feeling with which, in your opinion, it is regarded by the native community in those districts in which it has been brought into operation.

The several branches into which the subject divided itself with reference to the Despatch of 1854 have now been examined, and, as far as possible under the circumstances, disposed of; but in referring to you for consideration and report the subject of the state and prospects of Education in India, I cannot leave unnoticed the question of religious teaching, and more particularly that of the reading of the Holy Scriptures in the Government schools.

From the earliest period at which the British Government in India directed its attention to the subject of Education, all its measures, in consistency with the policy which regulated its proceedings in other departments of the State, have been based on the principle of perfect religious neutrality; in other words, on an abstinence from all interference with the religious feelings and practices of the natives, and on the exclusion of religious teaching from the Government schools. As a necessary part of this policy, the Holy Scriptures have been excluded from the course of teaching; but the Bible has a place in the school libraries, and the pupils are at liberty to study it, and to obtain instruction from their masters as to its facts and doctrines out of school hours, if they expressly desire it. This provision is displeasing to many of those who have interested themselves in the education of the people of India; and some of the missionaries especially are much dissatisfied with it, and are desirous that direct instruction in the Bible should be afforded in the Government schools as a part of the regular course of teaching. Some of the greatest friends of Native Education, however, who are warmly interested in missionary operations declared themselves, before the Parliamentary Committees of 1853, to be averse to any change in the established policy of Government in this respect. The main argument of these gentlemen rested on the alarm and distrust which would probably be excited by the introduction of religious teaching into the Government schools, even if attendance on the Bible classes were declared to be voluntary. But it was further observed that it would not be honest to accept the consent of the pupils themselves to attend the classes, and that it was not probable that the assent of the parents would be given; and it was pointed out that most of the masters in the Government institutions are natives, and that instruction in the facts and doctrines of the Bible, given by heathen teachers, would not be likely to prove of much advantage.

It would certainly appear that the formation of a class for instruction in the Bible, even though attendance on it might be voluntary, would at any time be a measure of considerable hazard, and at best of doubtful countervailing advantage. More especially at the present time, the introduction of a change in this respect might be found peculiarly embarrassing. The proclamation of Her Majesty, on assuming the direct control of the Government of India, plainly declared that no interference with the religion of the people, or with their habits and usages, was to take place. Now, though in this country there might seem but a slight difference between the liberty enjoyed by the pupils to consult their teachers out of school hours with regard to the teaching of the Bible, and the formation of a class for affording such instruction in school hours to such as might choose to attend it, it is to be feared that the change would seem by no means a slight one to the natives of India, and that the proposed measure might in a political point of view be object-

ionable and dangerous, as tending to shake the confidence of the native community in the assurances of a strict adherence to past policy in respect to religious neutrality, which Her Majesty has been pleased to put forth.

The free resort of pupils of all classes to Government schools, even at times when unusual alarm has been excited in the minds of the natives, is a sufficient proof of the confidence which is felt in the promises of Government that no interference with religious belief will be allowed in their schools, and this confidence Her Majesty's Government would be very reluctant to disturb by any change of system which might give occasion to misapprehension. They are unable therefore to sanction any modification of the rule of strict religious neutrality as it has hitherto been enforced in the Government schools; and it accordingly remains that, the Holy Scriptures being kept in the library, and being open to all the pupils who may wish to study them, and the teachers being at liberty to afford instruction and explanations regarding them to all who may voluntarily seek it, the course of study in all the Government institutions be, as heretofore, confined to secular subjects.

It is my intention in this Despatch to confine my remarks to the subject of General Education, and I therefore abstain from noticing the means of instruction in the special subjects of Medicine, Law, and Civil Engineering, which are afforded in Government colleges at the different Presidencies. I will merely remark that through those institutions, a course of honourable occupation is opened out to those young men who, having obtained a certain amount of General Education, apply themselves to any one of the special subjects of study, and go through the prescribed examination. Some of the institutions have been in operation for many years, and a large number of the native youth who have passed through them are engaged in the public service, and others are prosecuting the practice of their profession on their own account.

I am happy to add, that inducements to self-improvement are not confined to such special employments. It has long been the object of the several Governments to raise the qualifications of the public servants, even in the lowest appointments; and by recent orders no person can, without a special report from the appointing officer, be admitted into the service of Government on a salary exceeding six rupees per mensem, who is destitute of elementary education; and elaborate rules have been framed by which a gradually ascending scale of scholastic qualification is required in those entering the higher ranks of the service. It may be anticipated that many years will elapse before a sufficient number of educated young men are raised up in India to supply the various subordinate offices in the administration in the manner contemplated by the new rules.

It is the desire of Her Majesty's Government that your report shall not be confined to those points which have been specially referred to in this Despatch, but shall embrace the whole subject of General Education. They will expect to receive, among other things, full statistical information as to the number of schools established since 1854, whether by Government or with the aid of Government; the number of pupils on the books, and the condition of the attendance, the cost of the several schools, and the whole expense incurred by the Government under the

various heads of controlling establishments, instructive establishments, and grants-in-aid; and also, as far as practicable, the number and character of schools unconnected with Government aid or control. The impressions which they have received and the views which they have expressed are necessarily, from the want of sufficient information, stated with some reservation; and they will expect to receive from you the means of judging of the correctness of their conclusions, together with a full and deliberate expression of your opinion as to the operation of the existing scheme of Education in all its parts.

In conclusion, I have to call your attention to the question referred to at the commencement of this Despatch, *viz.*, that of the connexion between the recent disturbances in India and the measures in progress for the prosecution of Education. It is only in the reports of a few of the officers of the Bengal Government that any official information is afforded on this point; and in them the evidence amounts but to little, and is confined to Behar. In that province, previously to the outbreak, it was reported that some jealousy had been raised by the part taken by Government in the work of Education; but it would appear that this jealousy had originated rather from a general indisposition to Government interference, and from a vague feeling that the spread of knowledge itself is inconsistent with the maintenance of the native religions, than from special objection to any part of the Government scheme. In the reports from Behar since the commencement of the mutinies, the continued existence of such feelings is not mentioned, and the disposition of the people towards Education is spoken of in less discouraging terms; and it is satisfactory to find that in few cases had any schools been given up in consequence of the disturbances, though some schools had been suspended for a time by the presence of rebels in the villages.

It is impossible to found any conclusions on information so manifestly insufficient as that which Her Majesty's Government possess, and they have therefore to commend this most important question to your careful consideration. It is obvious that measures, however good in themselves, must fail if unsuited to those for whose benefit they are intended; and it seems important, therefore, to learn whether any of the measures taken by Government in recent years to promote the Education of the natives of India, have been such as to afford just ground of suspicion or alarm; whether, notwithstanding the absence of any just ground of alarm, there has, in fact, existed a misunderstanding of the intentions of Government with regard to their measures, which excited apprehensions, however unfounded; and whether any, and what, alterations of existing arrangements can be devised, by which, without drawing back from the great duty so deliberately affirmed in the Despatch of the 19th July 1854, of raising the moral, intellectual, and physical condition of Her Majesty's subjects in India, by means of improved and extended facilities of Education, the risk of misapprehension may be lessened, and the minds of the people may be set at rest.

I rely on your immediate attention being given to the subject, and I shall hope to receive your report at the earliest practicable period.

His Excellency the Right Honorable

The Governor-General of India in Council.

I have, &c.

(Signed) STANLEY.

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Appendix E.

PROPOSAL TO LEVY SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL RATE FOR VERNACULAR SCHOOLS.

FROM

A. J. ARBUTHNOT, Esq.,
Director of Public Instruction,

TO

THE CHIEF SECRETARY TO GOVERNMENT,

Fort Saint George.

SIR,

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the Proceedings of Government under date the 3rd instant, No. 1357, calling upon me, with reference to a letter from the Secretary to the Government of India, dated the 15th ultimo, to submit an early report on the points adverted to in the 7th and 8th paragraphs of the Resolution of the Supreme Government, dated the 11th June last, in anticipation of the more comprehensive report which I have been directed to submit on the various subjects treated of in that document and in Lord Stanley's Despatch of the 7th April last.

The two questions on which an opinion is now called for are, 1st, whether it is desirable to impose an educational rate as a means of providing for the elementary education of the rural population, and, if not, what other measures should be definitely adopted for this purpose; 2nd, whether the alleged objections on the part of the Native community to the system of granting State aid to schools conducted by Missionaries really exist.

It will be in the recollection of Government that on a former occasion* when discussing the various plans which had been tried for providing instruction for the rural population, I expressed myself in favor of the eventual adoption of an educational rate as being the only certain mode of meeting the large expenditure that would be required, and of permanently guaranteeing to each village schoolmaster the means of obtaining a respectable livelihood by the practice of his profession. But while viewing this measure as the only adequate means of carrying out the object in view, and one that would have to be eventually resorted to, I was doubtful whether the time had come for the imposition of such a tax, on the ground that in most districts it must be preceded by a complete revision of the land tax, while in others in which the assessment was light, it seemed desirable to defer it, until the adoption of other measures for the improvement of existing teachers should have practically convinced the people of the advantages of an improved system of education.

* 10th July 1857.

The measure which I then proposed as a temporary experiment, of encouraging Village schoolmasters by the establishment of a limited number of Normal scholarships, to qualify themselves for the efficient performance of their duties, and by offering grants to those who might so qualify themselves, the amount of such grant depending partly on the attainments and partly on the number of their pupils,—has not as yet been attended with any success. The number of Village teachers who have resorted to the Normal school has been extremely limited; and the few who have attended them, have done so with the object of obtaining employment in the Government Taluk schools, and not with any intention of earning a livelihood by re-opening their own schools.

This perhaps has been in some measure attributable to the circumstance that the grant, as originally proposed by Captain Macdonald, with whom the scheme originated, was to consist of books. Under the discretion vested in me by Government, I have lately altered it to a money grant, and it is possible that this alteration may have some effect in inducing Village schoolmasters to qualify for it. I should mention, however, that in the Taluk adjoining Vellore, it was notified on the establishment of a Normal school at that station, that the grant would be in the form of a money grant, notwithstanding which, the number of village masters who have resorted to the Normal school has been limited to a few candidates for employment in the Government schools.

On the whole, therefore, I cannot regard the circumstance that this experiment is in progress, or the prospects of success which it at present holds out, as furnishing any sufficient grounds for postponing the more comprehensive measure of an educational rate, if the latter be deemed to be otherwise unobjectionable.

But there are, I think, other reasons which render it questionable whether the time has yet come for determining that the Government shall take into its own hands the duty of instructing the whole of the rural population, by the establishment of village schools throughout the country, conducted by teachers appointed by Government, and supported by an educational rate. It is obvious that such a measure would be incompatible with any extension of the grant-in-aid system in this branch of educational work. If the Government undertake to provide a system of efficient village schools, it is not to be expected that private agencies will extend or continue their operations. Private schools of this class will gradually disappear, and the efforts of those Societies and individuals which now are, or which might hereafter be, directed to the extension of elementary education will be diverted to other objects. The existing Missionary Societies will gradually reduce their day schools,—the formation of new Societies for the diffusion of primary instruction will be abandoned.

In one of the districts of this Presidency (I refer to Tinnevely) elementary schools have for some years past been supported by two of the leading Missionary Societies on an extensive scale. These schools have been materially improved by the application of the grant-in-aid system. The Societies by which they are mainly supported have each organized efficient Training schools. The arrangements for management and supervision are generally effective, and the whole machinery is fully

adequate to the purpose for which it is designed. At the close of the last official year 163 of these schools, with an attendance of 5,566 pupils, were under inspection. The amount expended on them in Government grants during the year was Rupees 5,131, while the expenditure of the Societies during the same period was Rs. 25,640. The number of schools under inspection in all probability will be considerably increased when the result of the late examination of candidates for certificates as teachers shall have been made known. 127 additional teachers in the employment of the two Missions referred to having been examined on that occasion. It would surely be impolitic to adopt any measure which would interfere with the maintenance and extension of this system; but if any general plan of providing for education by means of a rate be resolved on, it may be deemed objectionable to exempt the district of Tinnevely from its operation; and even if an exception should be made in this instance, the adoption of the measure generally in other districts would effectually prevent that which has been accomplished by private agency in Tinnevely being attempted by similar agency elsewhere.

I am aware that what can be effected by one or two Societies dependent for their support on the liberality of Europeans in this country and in England, is but scanty, as compared with the educational wants of the entire Presidency; and I confess that I do not at present see any very definite prospect of a large or rapid increase to the operations now carried on by the two Societies to which I refer and by others of a similar character. But though there is no immediate prospect of any large extension being given to the operations of the Missionary and other educational Societies, there are in some quarters symptoms of increased exertions, the success or failure of which may depend upon the decision of the question now under consideration. The Gospel Society which, owing to financial embarrassments, had a few years ago reduced its educational establishments, has of late given them a considerable extension,* and in England a new Society† has been formed for the special purpose of extending elementary vernacular education in this country which, if adequately supported, may do much.

The time is certainly still distant when the establishment of similar associations by the Natives themselves will render it possible to give that large extension to the application of the grant-in-aid system which will be requisite, if that system is to be made the means of providing generally for the instruction of the lower as well as of the higher classes. It is not probable that for some time to come the wealthier classes will sufficiently appreciate the duty which devolves on them of contributing to the instruction of their poorer neighbours, to make any pecuniary sacrifices for this object. Still less is it probable that the laboring classes, whether cultivators of the land or petty traders or artisans, will form associations among themselves for this purpose. Even in England where the advantages of education are far more generally appreciated than they are likely to be in India during the life-time of the

* NOTE.—The Home Committee have lately sanctioned an addition of Rs. 10,000 per annum to the Educational expenditure in Tinnevely.

† The Christian Vernacular Education Society for India.

present or indeed of the next generation, it is only by the agency of large Societies deriving their main support from the subscriptions of the wealthier sections of the community, and by the efforts of individuals belonging to the upper and middle classes, that the present system of national education is maintained. It is by the National Society and the British and Foreign Society, by the subscriptions of the Squire and the Clergyman of the parish and a few of the principal farmers in the rural districts, by the owners of factories and the thriving shopkeepers in the towns, not by associations of laborers, that the National Schools of England are enabled to meet the conditions on which aid is granted to them by the State. There, it was not till the blessings of education had been known and valued by the upper and middle classes for centuries, that the duty of meeting the wants of the lower classes was practically admitted. Here, where the commencement of educational operations among any class is a matter of comparatively recent date, it is not to be expected that what it took so many years of high civilization and enlightenment to accomplish in England will be brought about at once. There are doubtless many important differences in the national character rendering measures which are easy of accomplishment in Europe, impracticable in India; and it may be that the public spirit which is fostered by the free institutions of Great Britain will, notwithstanding all that may be done for the enlightenment of the upper classes, be found wanting here.

But whatever may be the eventual result, I hardly think that the time has arrived for settling the question definitively. It is only within the last four years that any extended measures have been carried out by Government for the instruction of those classes, who have the requisite means and leisure for going beyond the rudiments of learning; and the period during which the grant-in-aid system has been practically in operation is still shorter. Moreover, owing to various causes, this system has had as yet but little scope to develop itself. It is only within the past year that any thing like an adequate provision of funds has been sanctioned for the purpose of extending it, and this provision, owing to the necessities of the State, has been again reduced.

Under such circumstances, it is impossible to estimate, with any approach to certainty, what would be the result of the system, if it were fairly and systematically worked for a series of years.

For these reasons, I would recommend that for the present no measure should be adopted which would be incompatible with the eventual application of the grant-in-aid system, to providing elementary instruction for the mass of the population, and that adequate funds should be furnished for extending it under the rules now in force in this Presidency.

At the same time, I see no reason why the experiment of a special rate should not be tried in one or more districts in which there is no immediate prospect of its interfering with the extension of the grant-in-aid system. If it be confined for a time to a limited tract of country, it need not interfere with the development of the grant-in-aid system elsewhere, and the co-existence of the two systems will, after a time, furnish data for determining which of them it will be expedient to adopt

definitively. Circumstances seem to point to Rajahmandri as the most desirable locality for commencing the experiment. Since receiving the order of Government to which I am replying, a letter has reached me from the Sub-Collector of that district, urging the necessity of making some authoritative provision for the enforcement of the rate by which the village schools in the Taluks under his charge are maintained. It will be remembered that in my letter of the 10th July 1857, I questioned the correctness of designating this rate a voluntary one. It appears clear from Mr. Davidson's statements that it never was voluntary in the usual acceptation of the term, that for some time past there has been considerable difficulty in collecting it, and that the arrears now amount to upwards of Rs. 3,000. "Notwithstanding," he says, "the incessant and unremitting efforts which have been made by my predecessors and myself to recover them, the fact remains that the difficulty of collecting the school subscriptions is immeasurably greater than that of securing the revenue. Day after day the same complaint is made that a late Serishtadar, with a view to his advancement by zeal in the cause of education, threatened, cajoled, and by ways and means best understood by natives themselves, beguiled the village communities into presenting applications for the establishment of schools at their own expense which they now repudiate." In support of his assertions he has sent depositions taken in his presence from the representatives of those of the village communities who have from the beginning resisted payment, and who have distinctly intimated to him that they cannot and will not pay their arrears.

It is clear, therefore, that if the rate is to be continued in Rajahmandri, it must be made by authority what it is to a great extent, if not altogether, in reality, and must be collected under the same rules and enforced by the same penalties by which the general taxation of the country is enforced, but on the understanding that it is to be applied to the special purpose of education and for the special benefit of the village communities by which it is paid. The survey and assessment now proceeding in Rajahmandri presents a favorable opportunity for arranging the details. It is necessary, indeed, that something should be determined before the assessment is completed: for it is certain that under the revised assessment, the taxation of the Taluks in which the schools have been established will be largely increased, and that then the resistance to the impost, if it be maintained on its present footing, will be more open and more general.

I have accordingly instructed the officiating Inspector of the 1st Division to place himself in communication with the Revenue and Assessment Officers in Rajahmandri, with the view of preparing a detailed scheme for assessing the rate and for the general working of the measure, in the event of my proposal that what is now called a voluntary rate should be converted into a compulsory impost, being approved. The present rate is collected only from the ryots, for on the terms on which it was raised, it was not possible to apply it to the non-agricultural classes. It was arranged that the latter should contribute their quota to the support of the schools by the payment of a schooling fee for each child. But this rule apparently has not been enforced as it should have been, and under the present system the ryots in some villages pay for the instruction of nearly all classes but their own. Out of 40 boys

present in the village school at Pennugonda, when it was last visited by the Deputy Inspector, there were only 3 children of *bonâ fide* ryots, although the village contains nearly 100 houses occupied by persons of the agricultural class. In sanctioning therefore any new measure, provision should be made for enforcing on the non-agricultural classes a rate of payment equal in proportion to that which may be imposed on the ryots. A house tax would probably be the most convenient mode of raising the necessary funds.

I would extend the rate to the Taluks forming the principal division of the Rajahmandri district as well as to the sub-division. It may be deemed advisable with the view of giving further scope to the experiment, to try it also in one of the Southern districts where the advantages of education are more appreciated, at all events by the town communities, than they are in the Northern Circars. For this purpose I would select the district of South Arcot, where the land tax having been recently lowered, there would probably be less opposition to its introduction than elsewhere.

In regard to the second point on which the Government of India have called for an opinion, *viz.*, as to the reality of the alleged objections on the part of the natives generally to the grant of money to schools conducted by Missionaries; I would observe that, to the best of my belief, no such objection exists except in a few localities in which suspicions as to the views and policy of the Government on matters of religion have been suggested by Europeans. As a rule, I think such objections may be traced to an European origin. It is to my apprehension almost impossible to reconcile the circumstance that Mission schools, wherever they are established, are largely resorted to by the Natives, with the hypothesis that the objections in question are a genuine expression of the prevalent native feeling. I have no doubt that if a choice were given between a Government school and a Mission school, the former would in most cases be selected, supposing the advantages and the terms of admission to be the same in both. But a very slight reduction of the schooling fee is sufficient to turn the scale and to send to the Mission schools large numbers of those who are represented to object, on religious grounds, to the latter institutions being rendered more efficient by Government grants.

There is one point of view in which the present system of providing for education partly by means of Government schools and partly by means of grants-in-aid of schools established by private Societies and individuals, may appear in some instances to operate unfairly. Take the case of two large towns in adjoining districts, in one of which there is a flourishing Mission school, while in the other there is no school at all adequate to the wants of the place. At the latter a Government school is established to which the people contribute nothing beyond a moderate schooling fee for each child, while at the former they are compelled either to make use of the Mission school or to raise funds for the establishment of a school of their own, which at the lowest computation must considerably exceed the amount contributed by their neighbours towards the expenses of the Government school. This is an anomaly necessarily resulting from the simultaneous adoption of the two systems. The remedy seems to be, not to abolish the system of grants, but to limit the establish-

ment of Government schools and gradually to reduce it, as facilities arise for providing for the wants of the people by grants-in-aid.

I have the honor to be,

Sir,

Your most obedient Servant,

(Signed) A. J. ARBUTHNOT,

Director of Public Instruction.

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR OF
PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
24th September 1859. }

APPENDIX F.

EDUCATIONAL ACTS OF 1871.

Madras Local Funds Act IV. of 1871.

So far back as April 1859 the attention of the Government of India and of the several local Governments had been drawn by the Earl of Derby, who was then Secretary of State, to the expediency of imposing a compulsory rate to defray the expenses of Schools for the rural population. The measure did not at that time find favour at Madras, the Government headed by Sir Charles Trevelyan being opposed to any compulsory taxation for educational purposes. In May 1868 the Government of India pointed out that Act VI. of 1863 had entirely failed in the main object for which it was passed, and suggested, for earnest and immediate consideration, the introduction of an education cess on the model of the one which had proved so successful in Northern and Western India. The necessity for supplementing imperial revenues by local taxation had long been felt in this Presidency, and various local Acts were already in operation under which the conservancy of the principal towns and the formation and maintenance of district roads had been provided for by local taxation. The alarming state of the finances of India, which became known in the following year, although it was not, as was popularly supposed, the immediate cause of the measures of which a brief account will now be given, rendered legislation more than ever necessary. On the 4th February 1870, Sir Alexander Arbuthnot introduced the Local Funds Bill, which became law in March 1871 and came into force on the 1st April 1871. This measure was a far more comprehensive one than the one suggested by the Government of India, for it superseded not only the Madras Education Act VI. of 1863, but also the Madras District Road Cess Act III. of 1866 and the Madras Act II. of 1868, which also related to roads and bridges. The funds raised under the new Act were to be applicable to the following purposes:—

I. The construction, repair, and maintenance of roads and communications.

II. The diffusion of education and, with this object in view, the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance of schools either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid, the inspection of schools, and the training of teachers.

III. The construction and repair of hospitals, dispensaries, lunatic asylums, choultries, markets, tanks and wells; the payment of all charges connected with the objects for which such buildings have been constructed; the training and employment of vaccinators and medical practitioners, the sanitary inspection of towns and villages, the cleansing of the roads, streets, and tanks, and any other local works of public utility calculated to promote the health, comfort, or convenience of the people.

The rates, tolls, and taxes leviable under the Act were as follows:—

I. A rate or cess not exceeding 1 anna in the rupee on the annual rent value of all occupied land on whatever tenure held.

Class.	RS.	A.	P.
First	...	5	0 0
Second	...	3	0 0
Third	...	2	0 0
Fourth	...	1	0 0
Fifth	...	0	8 0
Sixth	...	0	4 0

II. A house-tax not exceeding the rates shown in the margin.

III. Tolls on carriages and animals at rates ranging from 1 anna to 1 rupee.

The house-tax was not to be imposed generally, but only in villages or groups of villages in which a grant-in-aid school already existed, or in which the inhabitants were prepared to establish a school under the grant-in-aid rules, or in which Government might determine to establish a school. The rate schools under Act IV. of 1863, with all the property belonging to them, were made over to the Local Fund Boards. Any district or part of a district to which the Act might be applied was to be called a Local Fund Circle. Each Local Fund Board was to consist of three or more non-official members, who were to continue in office for three years, and were to be eligible for re-appointment, and of an equal or smaller number of official members, including the Collectors, who was to be *ex-officio* President of every Board in his district. The Vice-President might be any member selected by Government. The entire executive power of the Board was vested in the President. All ministerial officers were to be appointed by him, but the number of such officers and the rates of their salaries were subject to the control of Government. Officers might be appointed by Government to inspect or superintend the operations of the Local Fund Boards, and the expense of such appointments was to be defrayed in rateable proportions out of the Local Funds of the several circles. One circle might also contribute to another circle or to a Municipality towards expenses incurred for the benefit of the contributing circle. Power was reserved to Government to appoint Local Committees for the management of schools, dispensaries, and other institutions maintained or aided out of Local Funds, but such Committees were to act in subordination to the Local Fund Boards.

RULES UNDER THE LOCAL FUNDS ACT IV. OF 1871.

Rules framed under the Local Funds Act were promulgated on the 30th June 1871. They provided for the formation of three distinct funds or set of funds, *viz.*, (1) the Road Fund, (2) Union Funds, and (3) Endowment Funds. The yearly assets of the Road Fund were to consist of the unexpended balance of the Road Fund remaining unexpended from the previous year; of two-thirds of the collections within the year of the cess on the rent value of land; of the proceeds of tolls; of Provincial Service Grants, or other sums of money the receipt of which for the purposes of the Road Fund might be sanctioned by Government, of the balance of the Road Fund under Act III. of 1866; of contributions from other Circles or Municipalities; of contribution for the construction or maintenance of communications; and of such appropriation in excess of two-thirds of the collections from the cess on the rent value of land as the Local Fund Board might, with competent sanction, assign for expenditure for the purposes of the Road Fund. Villages or groups of villages in which Government might direct the imposition of a house-tax for the support of a Local Fund school or schools situated therein, or for the reimbursement to Local Funds of Grants-in-Aid of a school or schools so situated

were to be denominated Unions. The proceeds of the house-tax levied within such unions, together with the school-fees, donations, contributions, and other money accruing to the schools or for Union purposes, were to form subordinate branches of the Local Fund under the designation of Union Funds. They were to be applied in the first instance to meet the educational expenditure of the Union, but, in the event of there being a surplus, it might be applied to other expenditure within the Union. Any elementary school in which 30 per cent. of the pupils for two consecutive years qualified for results grants was, as a general rule, to be permanently constituted a Union school, unless the inhabitants or other persons were willing to establish from their own resources an elementary school on the salary grant system. Local Committees were to be appointed for the management of schools of sufficient importance to render such a measure desirable.

The funds derived from endowments of hospitals, dispensaries, lunatic asylums, and other non-educational institutions made over to the Local Fund Boards, together with voluntary or special contributions or grants of money, were to form subordinate branches of the Local Fund under the designation of Endowment Funds.

The budget was to be so framed as to leave, besides the reserve provided for the District Road Fund, a general reserve equivalent to 10 per cent. of the estimated receipts other than those to be credited to Road, Union, and Endowment Funds. In the first week in September the Collector was to lay before the Local Fund Board an estimate of the gross receipts and charges of collection, and in the first week in October the Local Fund Board were to submit to the Board of Revenue a general budget estimate of all receipts and expenditure prepared in certain forms which were annexed to the rules. Copies of such portions of these statements as related to education were to be sent through the Deputy Inspector to the Director of Public Instruction, who was to communicate to the Board any remarks which he might have to make with regard to the adequacy or appropriateness of the provision made for the educational wants of the Circle. These statements were:—

I. STATEMENT I.—Budget Estimate of the Local Fund.

II. STATEMENT III.—Estimated receipts and expenditure from Union and Educational Foundations.

III. STATEMENT III-A.—Details of charges in Local Fund schools under the head of (1) Training schools, (2) Union schools and (3) Other schools.

IV. STATEMENT IV-B.—List of Salary Grants provided for in Budget Assignment.

The estimates, after they had been reviewed by the Board of Revenue and by Government, were to be printed and circulated. Supplemental budgets might be submitted if necessary. Local Fund Boards were to determine the rates of fees in Union Schools and the strength of the teaching and other staff. The house-tax might be reduced if the receipts during two years exceeded the expenditure by 25 per cent. When subordinate Committees were appointed, they were to frame and submit to the Local Fund Board the Union budget estimate. Two-thirds of the

salaries and travelling allowances of the Deputy Inspectors was to be charged against Local Funds, as long as the existing staff remained unchanged. The cost of any addition to the staff of Deputy Inspectors and of all charges connected with inspecting schoolmasters was to be met entirely from Local Funds. Contributions, varying according to circumstances, were to be made on account of inspection by Municipalities. All these salaries and allowances were, however, to be paid in the first instance from Provincial Funds, and the amount due by the Local Fund Boards was to be recorded and adjusted under instructions from the Accountant-General every month. The Local Fund Board might allot from the balance of the Union Funds, or from the unallotted balance of the Local Fund, sums in excess of the budget provision for contingent charges on schools under their control up to the limit of Rupees 50 for any one institution. Appropriations in excess of this limit required the sanction of the Board of Revenue, who might also sanction expenditure in excess of the estimate for teaching staff. Salary grants might be given to lower-class schools, but in every case the sanctioning resolution was to be forwarded to the Director of Public Instruction, who was to see that no grants were assigned to any but schools of the lower-class and that the rules were observed. A sanctioned grant was not to be paid unless provided for in the budget. Results grants up to the limit of the budget provision were to be paid from Local Funds under the existing rules, provided the school was certified to be of the lower-class. Presidents of Local Fund Boards were required to consult the Inspector of the division in the nomination of educational officers. Under Government Order, No. 47, of the 17th January 1872, some slight changes were made in the rules with a view to make the cost of establishments of general control depend on assets instead of on expenditure. Certain subsidiary rules relating to pensions to employes on Local Fund establishments were sanctioned in Government Order, No. 431, of the 13th March 1874. Inspecting schoolmasters and masters of Local Fund schools of the higher and middle classes were declared eligible for pension under the rules of the Pension Code. The pension was to be provided by the Local Fund Board of the Circle in which the person was employed when he retired, and in the case of officials paid partly from Imperial Funds and partly from the Local Fund, the pension was to be divided in proportion to the total pay received from Government and the Local Fund.

Towns Improvement Act III of 1871.

The Towns Improvement Act III. of 1871, was introduced and passed simultaneously with the Local Funds Act, and these two Acts, although framed separately for the purpose of administrative convenience, were really component parts of a single legislative measure. It superseded the Towns Improvement Act X. of 1865, the Madras Education Act V. of 1863, and the Road Cess Act III. of 1866, and made over all property held by the former Municipal School Commissioners, who were to consist of not less than three non-official members and an equal or smaller number of official members, including the Collector of the district and the Revenue officer of the division. The Collector was to be President and one of the members Vice-President. The Vice-President and a certain number of members might, if Government considered it advisable, be elected by the rate-payers. Government might

apply the Act to any Mofussil town or village, or collections of towns, villages, and hamlets, by a Notification which was to take effect three months after publication. The funds raised under this Act were, *inter alia*, to be applicable to the diffusion of education, and with this view the construction and repair of school-houses, the establishment and maintenance of schools, either wholly or by means of grants-in-aid, the inspection of schools, and the training of teachers. These funds were to consist of—

(1) A rate on houses, buildings and lands not exceeding $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the annual rent.

(2) A tax on arts, professions, trades and callings, varying from Rs. 100 to 1 Rupee.

(3) Taxes on vehicles and animals, ranging from Rupees 12 to 4 Annas.

(4) Tolls ranging from 1 Rupee to 1 Anna.

There was, however, no special educational tax, nor was any percentage required to be set aside for educational purposes. A Municipality might contribute towards expenditure incurred for its benefit in any other Municipality or Local Fund Circle. The Local Fund Rules, so far as they related to the sanction and payment of educational grants-in-aid, were declared applicable to Municipalities, but no rules were passed regarding Municipal schools, Municipal budgets, the proportion of the funds which should be devoted to education, or any other matter connected with education.

APPENDIX G.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.

(1).—*Recommendations on Indigenous Education.*

That an indigenous school be defined as one established or conducted by natives of India on native methods.

That all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever.

That the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, and desiring recognition, be ascertained by the Education Departments in communication with Pandits, Maulavis, and others interested in the subject.

That preference be given to that system which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of examinations.

That special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training.

That a steady and gradual improvement in indigenous schools be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with their *personnel* or curriculum as possible.

That the standards of examination be arranged to suit each Province, with the view of preserving all that is valued by the people in the indigenous systems, and of encouraging by special grants the gradual introduction of useful subjects of instruction.

That indigenous schools receiving aid be inspected *in situ*, and, as far as possible, the examinations for their grants-in-aid be conducted *in situ*.

That aided indigenous schools, not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all classes and castes of the community, special aid being, if necessary, assignable on account of low-caste pupils.

That such a proportion between special and other elementary indigenous schools be maintained in each town and District, as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes.

That where Municipal and Local Boards exist, the registration, supervision, and encouragement of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to such Boards; provided that boards shall not interfere in any way with such schools as do not desire to receive aid, or to be subject to the supervision of the Boards.

That the aid given to elementary indigenous schools be a charge against the funds at the disposal of Local and Municipal boards where such exist; and every

indigenous school, which is registered for aid, receive from such Boards the aid to which it is entitled under the rules.

That such Boards be required to give elementary indigenous schools free play and development, and to establish fresh schools of their own only where the preferable alternative of aiding suitable indigenous schools cannot be adopted.

That the local inspecting officers be *ex-officio* members of Municipal or District school-boards.

That the officers of the Education Department keep lists of all elementary indigenous schools, and assist the Boards in selecting schools to be registered for aid, and in securing a proportionate provision of education for all classes of the community.

(2).—*Recommendations on Primary Education.*

That primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the University.

That the Upper Primary and Lower Primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province.

That while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.

That an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for, and extension of, primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province.

That where indigenous schools exist, the principle of aiding and improving them be recognised as an important means of extending elementary education.

That examinations by inspecting officers be conducted as far as possible *in situ*, and all primary schools receiving aid be invariably inspected *in situ*.

That, as a general rule, aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination; but an exception may be made in the case of schools established in backward Districts or under peculiar circumstances, which may be aided under special rules.

That school-houses and furniture be of the simplest and most economical kind.

That the standards of primary examinations in each Province be revised with a view to simplification, and to the larger introduction of practical subjects, such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts and mensuration, the elements of natural and physical science, and their application to agriculture, health, and the industrial arts; but that no attempt be made to secure general uniformity throughout India.

That care be taken not to interfere with the freedom of managers of aided schools in the choice of text-books.

That promotion from class to class be not necessarily made to depend on the results of one fixed standard of examinations uniform throughout the Province.

That physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school-drill, and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school.

That all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children, and that, for the guidance of the masters, a special manual be prepared.

That the existing rules, as to religious teaching in Government schools, be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by Municipal or Local Fund Boards.

That the supply of Normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localised as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools, whether Government or aided, within the Division under each Inspector.

That the first charges on Provincial Funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, and the provision of adequate Normal schools.

That pupils in Municipal or Local board-schools be not entirely exempted from payment of fees, merely on the ground that they are the children of rate-payers.

That in all board-schools, a certain proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools, established for the benefit of poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons.

That, subject to the exemption of a certain proportion of free students on account of poverty, fees, whether in money or kind, be levied in all aided schools; but the proceeds be left entirely at the disposal of the school-managers.

That the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated 11th October 1844, be re-affirmed, i. e., that in selecting person to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to candidates who can read and write.

That the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and of the North-Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers, such as Patels and Lambardars.

That night-schools be encouraged wherever practicable.

That as much elasticity as possible be permitted both as regards the hours of the day and the seasons of the year during which the attendance of scholars is required, especially in agricultural villages and in backward Districts.

That primary education be extended in backward Districts, especially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending the creation of school-boards, or by specially liberal Grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools.

That all primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-boards, and all primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community.

That such a proportion between special and other primary schools be maintained in each school-district as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all castes.

That assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which poor children are taught reading, writing, and counting, with or without manual work.

That primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of Public Instruction, which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues.

That both Municipal and Local Boards keep a separate school-fund.

That the Municipal school-fund consist of—

- (a) a fair proportion of Municipal revenues, to be fixed in each case by the Local Government ;
- (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the Municipal school-fund ;
- (c) any assignment that may be made to the Municipal school fund from the Local Fund ;
- (d) any assignment from Provincial Funds ;
- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the Municipalities for the promotion of education ;
- (f) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years.

That the Local Board's school-fund consist of—

- (a) a distinct share of the general Local Fund, which share shall not be less than a minimum proportion to be prescribed for each Province ;
- (b) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund ;
- (c) any contribution that may be assigned by Municipal Boards ;
- (d) any assignment made from Provincial Funds ;
- (e) any other funds that may be entrusted to the Local Boards for the promotion of education ;
- (f) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years.

That the general control over primary school-expenditure be vested in the school-boards, whether Municipal or Local, which may now exist or may hereafter be created for self-government in each Province.

That the first appointment of schoolmasters in Municipal or Local Board-schools be left to the town or District boards, with the proviso that the masters be certificated or approved by the Department, and their subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards, subject to the approval of the Department.

That the cost of maintaining or aiding primary schools in each school-district, and the construction and repair of board school-houses, be charged against the Municipal or Local Board school-fund so created.

That the vernacular, in which instruction shall be imparted in any primary school, maintained by any Municipal or Local Board, be determined by the school committee of management, subject to revision by the Municipal or Local Board : provided that if there be any dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes or schools, and it shall be incumbent on such Municipal or Local Board to assign to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds.

That Municipal and Local Boards administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding such schools, and introduce no change therein without the sanction of the Department.

(3).—*Recommendations on Secondary Education.*

That in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions,—one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits.

That when the proposed bifurcation in secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or, if necessary, by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service.

That high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term "secondary schools," and that the classification of students in secondary schools be provided for in a separate Table, showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education.

That a small annual grant be made for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools.

That the Grant-in-aid Code of each Province include provision for giving help to school-managers in the renewal, and, if necessary, the increase, of their furniture and apparatus of instruction after stated intervals.

That an examination in the principles and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, Government or aided.

That graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a Normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others.

That the claims of efficient and successful teachers in aided schools be considered in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, and that in cases duly certified by the Education Department the 25 years' rule be relaxed.

That the Director of Public Instruction, in consultation with the managers of schools receiving aid from Government, determine the scale of fees to be charged and the proportion of pupils to be exempted from payment therein.

That, in order to encourage the establishment of aided schools, the managers be not required to charge fees as high as those of a neighbouring Government school of the same class.

That scholarship-holders as such be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

That in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that, as suggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions.

That scholarships payable from public funds, including educational endowments not attached to a particular institution, be awarded after public competition, without restriction, except in special cases, to students from any particular class of schools.

That scholarships gained in open competition be tenable, under proper safeguards to ensure the progress of the scholarship-holder, at any approved institution for general or special instruction.

That the attention of the Government of Bombay be invited to the fact that, while the Despatch of 1854 provides for the creation of both free and stipendiary scholarships tenable in Government and private schools alike, almost exclusive stress is now laid in that Presidency upon free studentships, and that stipendiary scholarships are confined to students of Government schools.

That the Government of Madras be invited to consider the necessity of revising the system of scholarships in secondary schools in that Presidency, with a view to bringing it into harmony with the provisions of the Despatch of 1854.

That in the conduct of all departmental examinations, managers and teachers of the various non-Government schools be associated, as far as possible, with the officers of the Department.

That, in order to secure the efficiency of departmental examinations, examiners, whether officials or non-officials, be remunerated from the fees levied from candidates, increased, when necessary, by a grant from Government.

That the importance of requiring inspecting officers to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of pupils be re-affirmed.

That continuous instruction in school without a break do not extend, as a rule, beyond three hours.

That in the Punjab the course in Persian of high schools do not extend beyond the standard of the Entrance examination.

That promotions from class to class be left entirely to the discretion of the school authorities.

That it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English be hereafter established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of Grants-in-aid.

(4).—*Recommendations on Collegiate Education.*

That the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality.

That provision be made for special grants to aided colleges, whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.

That in order to secure a due succession of competent officers in the Education Department, the period of necessary service qualifying for pension should be reduced, and that a graduated scale of pensions based on length of service, and obtainable without medical certificate, should be introduced.

That Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.

That in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable, in all the larger colleges, Government and aided, to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.

That the discretionary power of Principals of colleges, to admit to certain courses of lectures in special cases students who have not passed the examinations required by the Universities, be affirmed.

That an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.

That the principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen.

That while it is desirable to affirm the principle that fees at the highest rate consistent with the undiminished spread of education should be levied in every college aided by the State, no aided college should be required to levy fees at the same rate as that charged in a neighbouring Government college.

That no college, Government or aided, be allowed to receive more than a certain proportion of free students; the proportion to be fixed by the Department, in communication, where necessary, with the managers.

That to secure regularity of attendance at colleges, the principle be affirmed that fees, though levied monthly for the convenience of students, are to be regarded as payments for a term, and that a student has no right to a certificate from his college for any term until the whole fee for that term is paid.

That as the fees in the Presidency College of Madras are considerably lower than those which it is found practicable to levy in the Presidency Colleges of Calcutta and Bombay, the Government of Madras be invited to consider the advisability of enhancing the rate of fees in that College.

That the Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider whether it is necessary to assign for scholarships tenable in Arts Colleges a larger proportion of the provincial grant for education than 2 per cent.

That scholarship-holders as such be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of appropriating, where necessary, a certain sum for the establishment for scholarships tenable by graduates reading for the M. A. degree.

That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of establishing scholarships for distinguished graduates to enable them to proceed to Europe for the purpose of practically studying some branch of mechanical industry.

That in place of the system existing in Madras, according to which the first twenty students at the University Entrance and F. A. examinations are allowed to read free in any Government college, liberal provision be made for a system of scholarships open to general competition and tenable in any college.

(5).—*Recommendations on the Internal Administration of the Education Department.*

That when an educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay.

That conferences (1) of officers of the Education Department, and (2) of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education, the Director of Public Instruction being in each case *ex-officio* President of the conference. Also that Deputy Inspectors occasionally hold local meetings of the schoolmasters subordinate to them for the discussion of questions of school management.

That a general educational library and museum be formed at some suitable locality in each Province, and that encouragement be given to school-papers or magazines conducted in the vernacular.

That managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing, as far as the circumstances of the locality allow, (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion into a higher class by changing his school.

That it be an instruction to the Department in the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.

That the Education Department in each Province limits its calls for returns, (1) to such as the Government may require, and (2) to such others as are indispensable for information and control.

That all schools managed by the Department, or by Committees exercising statutory powers, and all other schools that are regularly aided or inspected, or that regularly send pupils to the examinations of the University or of the Department (other than examinations which are conducted by the Department for admission to the public service), be classed as public schools, and sub-divided into departmental, aided, and unaided; (2) that all other schools furnishing returns to the Department be classed as private schools; and (3) that all other details of classification be referred to the Statistical Committee appointed by the Government of India.

That no attempt be made to furnish financial returns for private schools.

That native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage all education as far as possible, but that the results must be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province.

That the remuneration of subordinate inspecting officers be reconsidered in each Province with due regard to their enhanced duties and responsibilities.

That, as a general rule, transfers of officers from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools, and *vice versa*, be not made.

That it be distinctly laid down that native gentlemen of approved qualifications be eligible for the post of Inspector of Schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto.

That Inspectresses be employed where necessary for the general supervision of Government, aided, and other girls' schools desiring inspection.

That in every Province a Code be drawn up for the guidance of Inspecting Officers.

That it be recognised as the duty of the Revenue Officers to visit the schools within their jurisdiction, communicating to the Executive Officers or Board to which each school is subordinate any recommendations which they may desire to make.

That voluntary inspection by officers of Government and private persons be encouraged, in addition to the regular inspection of departmental and Revenue Officers.

That the detailed examination of scholars in primary schools be chiefly entrusted to the Deputy Inspectors and their assistants, and that the main duty of the Inspectors in connection with such schools be to visit them, to examine into the way in which they are conducted, and to endeavour to secure the cordial support of the people in the promotion of primary education.

That the general upper and lower primary school examinations be not compulsory, but that the annual reports show the number of scholars in each stage of education.

That in every Province in which examinations for the public service are held, they be so arranged as to give encouragement to vernacular education.

That the Committees appointed to conduct the public service examinations and other examinations of a similar kind include representatives of non-Government schools as well as departmental officers.

That Normal schools, Government or aided, for teachers of secondary schools be encouraged.

That the Text-book Committees in the several Provinces include qualified persons of different sections of the community not connected with the Department, and that to these Committees should be submitted all text-books, both English and vernacular, that it is proposed to introduce into schools, and all text-books now in use that may seem to need revision.

That the Text-book Committees of the several Provinces act as far as possible in concert, and that they communicate to each other lists of English text-books, and, in the case of those Provinces which have any common language, lists of vernacular text-books, which are satisfactory, and of books which they consider to be wanting or inadequate.

That the operations of the existing Government depôts be confined as soon as may be practicable to the supply and distribution of vernacular text-books.

That care be taken to avoid, as far as possible, the introduction of text-books which are of an aggressive character, or are likely to give unnecessary offence to any section of the community.

That in the printing of text-books, especially vernacular text-books, attention be paid to clearness of typography.

(6)—*Recommendations on the External Relations of the Department.*

That teachers in non-Government institutions be allowed to present themselves for examination for any grade of certificate required by the Grant-in-aid rules without being compelled to attend a Normal school.

That in any statement of expenditure required by the Grant-in-aid rules from colleges whose Professors are prevented from receiving fixed salaries by the constitution of the religious societies to which they belong, the expenditure on the maintenance of such colleges be calculated at the rates current in aided institutions of the same general character.

That in schools aided on the result-system, variety in the course of instruction be encouraged by grants for special subjects.

That greater latitude be given to the managers of aided schools in fixing the course of instruction and the medium through which it is conveyed.

That the payment-by-results system be not applied to colleges.

That every application for a Grant-in-aid receive an official reply, and in case of refusal that the reasons for such refusal be given.

That the proximity of a Government or of an aided school be not regarded as of itself a sufficient reason for refusing aid to a non-Government school.

That with the object of rendering assistance to schools in the form best suited to the circumstances of each Province and thus to call forth the largest amount of local co-operation, the Grant-in-aid rules be revised by the Local Governments in concert with the managers of schools.

That, in this revision, the rules be so defined as to avoid any ambiguity as to the amount and duration of the aid to which an institution may be entitled, the conditions of grants for buildings, apparatus, and furniture being clearly stated; and that special reference be had to the complaints that have been made against existing systems, particularly the complaints dwelt upon in this Report.

That whilst existing State institutions of the higher order should be maintained in complete efficiency wherever they are necessary, the improvement and extension of institutions under private management be the principal care of the Department.

That, in ordinary circumstances, the further extension of secondary education in any District be left to the operation of the Grant-in-aid system, as soon as that District is provided with an efficient high school, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders.

That it be a general principle that the Grant-in-aid should depend—

- (a) On locality, *i. e.*, that larger proportionate grants be given to schools in backward Districts;
- (b) on the class of institutions, *i. e.*, that greater proportionate aid be given to those in which a large amount of self-support cannot be expected, *e. g.*, girls' schools and schools for lower castes and backward races.

That the following be adopted as general principles to regulate the amount of Grants-in-aid except in cases in which Recommendations for special aid have been made :—

- (a) That no grant be given to an institution which has become self-supporting by means of fees, and which needs no further development to meet the wants of the locality.
- (b) That the amount of State aid (exclusive of scholarships from public funds) do not exceed one-half of the entire expenditure on an institution.
- (c) That, as a general rule, this maximum rate of aid be given only to girls' schools, primary schools, and Normal schools.

That with a view to secure the co-operation of Government and non-Government institutions, the managers of the latter be consulted on matters of general educational interest, and that their students be admitted on equal terms to competition for certificates, scholarships, and other public distinctions.

That grants be paid without delay when they become due according to the rules.

That care be taken lest public examinations become the means of practically imposing the same text-books or curriculum on all schools.

That the revised rules for Grants-in-aid and any subsequent alterations made in them be not merely published in the official Gazettes, but translated into the vernacular, and communicated to the press, to the managers of aided and private institutions, and to all who are likely to help in any way in the spread of education.

That the further extension of female education be preferentially promoted by affording liberal aid and encouragement to managers who show their personal interest in the work, and only when such agency is not available by the establishment of schools under the management of the Department or of Local or Municipal Boards.

That a periodically increasing provision be made in the educational budget of each Province for the expansion of aided institutions.

That when any school or class of schools under departmental management is transferred to a Local or Municipal Board the functions of such board be clearly defined, and that, as a general rule, its powers include (a) the appointment of teachers qualified under the rules of the Department, (b) the reduction or dismissal of such teachers, subject to the approval of the Department, (c) the selection of the standard and course of instruction subject to the control of the Department, and (d) the determination of rates of fees and of the proportion of free students, subject to the general rules in force.

That if in any Province the management of Government schools of secondary instruction be transferred either to Municipalities or to Local Boards, or to Committees appointed by those bodies, encouragement be given to the subsequent transfer of the schools concerned to the management of associations of private persons combining locally with that object, provided they are able to afford adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.

That when Local and Municipal Boards have the charge of aiding schools, (1) their powers and duties be clearly defined; (2) that it be declared to be an important part of their duty to make provision for the primary education of the children of the poor; (3) that precautions be taken to secure that any assignment to them from public funds for purposes of education be impartially administered; (4) that an appeal against any refusal of aid lie to the Department.

That the system of Grants-in-aid be based as hitherto, in accordance with paragraph 53 of the Despatch of 1854, on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the institution assisted: provided that when the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it shall be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution.

That a parent be understood to consent to his child's passing through the full curriculum of the school, unless his intention to withdraw him from religious instruction be intimated at the time of the child's first entering the school, or at the beginning of a subsequent term.

That in order to evoke and stimulate local co-operation in the transfer to private management of Government institutions for collegiate or secondary instruction, aid at specially liberal rates be offered for a term of years, wherever necessary, to any local body willing to undertake the management of any such institution under adequate guarantees of permanence and efficiency.

That in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, provision be also made for the legal transfer to the new managers of all educational endowments, buildings and other property belonging to such institutions in the hands of Government.

That in the event of any Government school or college being transferred to local management, the incumbents of offices under Government be secured in the enjoyment of all their existing rights and privileges.

That all Directors of Public Instruction aim at the gradual transfer to local native management of Government schools of secondary instruction (including schools attached to first or second grade colleges), in every case in which the transfer can be effected without lowering the standard, or diminishing the supply of education, and without endangering the permanence of the institution transferred.

That the fact that any school raises more than 60 per cent. of its entire expenditure from fees be taken as affording a presumption that the transfer of such school to local management can be safely effected.

That in dealing with the question of the withdrawal of Government from the management of existing colleges, these colleges be regarded as divided into three classes, *viz.* :—

- (1) Those from which it is premature for Government to consider the propriety of withdrawal; on the ground that they are, and will long continue to be, the institutions on which the higher education of the country mainly depends.
- (2) Those that might be transferred with advantage, as a measure promising useful political results, to bodies of native gentlemen, provided the new managers give satisfactory guarantees that the college will be maintained (1) permanently, (2) in full efficiency, (3) in such a way as to make it adequate for all the wants of the locality.
- (3) Those which have been shown to be unsuccessful, or of which the cost is out of proportion to the utility, and from which Government might advantageously withdraw even with less stringent guarantees for permanent efficiency. Such colleges should be closed if, after due notice, no local body be formed to carry them on with such a Grant-in-aid as the rules provide.

That the Government of Madras be requested to consider the propriety of dealing with the second grade Government colleges of that province on the principles applicable to the second or third class as may be deemed advisable in each case, in the light of the recommendations made by the Madras Provincial Committee.

That the bestowal of patronage in Government appointments be so ordered as to offer greater encouragement to high education.

(7).—*Recommendations regarding classes requiring special treatment.*

a.—THE SONS OF NATIVE CHIEFS AND NOBLEMEN.

That Local Governments be invited to consider the question of establishing special colleges or schools for the sons and relations of Native Chiefs and Noblemen, where such institutions do not now exist.

That Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of entrusting the education of Wards of Court to the joint supervision of the district authorities and the Educational Inspectors.

b.—MUHAMMADANS.

That the special encouragement of Muhammadan education be regarded as a legitimate charge on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds.

That indigenous Muhammadan schools be liberally encouraged to add purely secular subjects to their curriculum of instruction.

That special standards for Muhammadan primary schools be prescribed.

That Hindustani be the principal medium for imparting instruction to Muhammadans in primary and middle schools, except in localities where the Muhammadan community desire that some other language be adopted.

That the official vernacular, in places where it is not Hindustani, be added, as a voluntary subject, to the curriculum of primary and middle schools for Muhammadans maintained from public funds; and that arithmetic and accounts be taught through the medium of that vernacular.

That, in localities where Muhammadans form a fair proportion of the population, provision be made in middle and high schools maintained from public funds for imparting instruction in the Hindustani and Persian languages.

That higher English education for Muhammadans, being the kind of education in which that community needs special help, be liberally encouraged.

That, where necessary, a graduated system of special scholarships for Muhammadans be established,—to be awarded,—

(a) In primary schools, and tenable in middle schools.

(b) In middle schools, and tenable in high schools.

(c) On the results of the Matriculation and First Arts examinations, and tenable in Colleges.

That, in all classes of schools maintained from public funds, a certain proportion of free studentships be expressly reserved for Muhammadan students.

That, in places where educational endowments for the benefit of Muhammadans exist, and are under the management of Government, the funds arising from such endowments be devoted to the advancement of education among Muhammadans exclusively.

That, where Muhammadan endowments exist, and are under the management of private individuals or bodies, inducements by liberal Grants in-aid be offered to them, to establish English-teaching schools or colleges on the Grant-in-aid system.

That, where necessary, Normal schools or classes for the training of Muhammadan teachers be established.

That, wherever instruction is given in Muhammadan schools through the medium of Hindustani, endeavours be made to secure, as far as possible, Muhammadan teachers to give such instruction.

That Muhammadan Inspecting Officers be employed more largely than hitherto for the inspection of primary schools for Muhammadans.

That Associations for the promotion of Muhammadan education be recognised and encouraged.

That in the annual Reports on public instruction a special section be devoted to Muhammadan education

That the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the question of the proportion in which patropage is distributed among educated Muhammadans and others.

That the principles embodied in the Recommendations given above be equally applicable to any other races with similar antecedents, whose education is on the same level as that of the Muhammadans.

C.—ABORIGINAL TRIBES.

That children of aboriginal tribes be exempted wherever necessary from payment of fees, over and above any general exemptions otherwise provided for.

That, if necessary, extra allowances be given under the result system for boys of aboriginal tribes taught in ordinary schools.

That when children of aboriginal tribes are found sufficiently instructed to become schoolmasters among their own people, attempts be made to establish them in schools within the borders of the tribes.

That if any bodies be willing to undertake the work of education among aboriginal tribes, they be liberally assisted on the basis of abstention from any interference with any religious teaching.

That where the language of the tribe has not been reduced to writing, or is otherwise unsuitable, the medium of instruction be the vernacular of the neighbouring population, with whom the aboriginal people most often come in contact.

That, where the education of such tribes is carried on in their own vernacular, the vernacular of the neighbouring District be an additional subject of instruction where this is found advisable.

D.—LOW CASTES.

That the principle laid down in the Court of Directors' letter of May 5th, 1854, and again in their reply to the letter of the Government of India, dated May 20th, 1857, that "no boy be refused admission to a Government college or school merely on the ground of caste" and repeated by the Secretary of State in 1863, be now re-affirmed as a principle, and be applied with due caution to every institution not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds, whether Provincial, Municipal, or Local.

That the establishment of special schools or classes for children of low caste be liberally encouraged in places where there is a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education.

(8).—*Recommendations on Female Education.*

That female education be treated as a legitimate charge alike on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial Funds, and receive special encouragement.

That all female schools or orphanages, whether on a religious basis or not, be eligible for aid so far as they produce any secular results, such as a knowledge of reading or of writing.

That the conditions of aid to girls' schools be easier than to boys' schools, and the rates higher—more especially in the case of those established for poor or for low caste girls.

That the rules for grants be so framed as to allow for the fact that girls' schools generally contain a large proportion of beginners, and of those who cannot attend school for so many hours a day, or with such regularity as boys.

That the standards of instruction for primary girls' schools be simpler than those for boys' schools, and be drawn up with special reference to the requirements of home life, and to the occupations open to women.

That the greatest care be exercised in the selection of suitable text-books for girls' schools, and that the preparation for such books be encouraged.

That, while fees be levied where practicable, no girls' school be debarred from a grant on account of its not levying fees.

That special provision be made for girls' scholarships, to be awarded after examination, and that, with a view to encouraging girls to remain longer at school, a certain proportion of them be reserved for girls not under twelve years of age.

That liberal aid be offered for the establishment, in suitable localities, of girls' schools in which English should be taught in addition to the vernacular.

That special aid be given, where necessary, to girls' schools that make provision for boarders.

That the Department of Public Instruction be requested to arrange, in concert with managers of girls' schools, for the revision of the Code of Rules for Grants-in-aid in accordance with the above Recommendations.

That, as mixed schools, other than infant schools, are not generally suited to the conditions of this country, the attendance of girls at boys' schools be not encouraged, except in places where girls' schools cannot be maintained.

That the establishment of infant schools or classes, under schoolmistresses, be liberally encouraged.

That female schools be not placed under the management of Local Boards or of Municipalities unless they express a wish to take charge of them.

That the first appointment of schoolmistresses in girls' schools under the management of Municipal or Local Boards be left to such boards, with the proviso that the mistress be either certificated, or approved by the Department: and that subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the Boards, subject to the approval of the Department.

That rules be framed to promote the gradual supersession of male by female teachers in all girls' schools

That, in schools under female teachers, stipendiary pupil-teacherships be generally encouraged.

That the attention of Local Governments be invited to the question of establishing additional Normal schools or classes; and that those under private management receive liberal aid, part of which might take the form of a bonus for every pupil passing the certificate examination.

That the departmental certificate examinations for teachers be open to all candidates, wherever prepared.

That teachers in schools for general education be encouraged by special rewards to prepare pupils for examinations for teachers' certificates, and that girls be encouraged by the offer of prizes to qualify for such certificates.

That liberal inducements be offered to the wives of schoolmasters to qualify as teachers, and that in suitable cases widows be trained as schoolmistresses, care being taken to provide them with sufficient protection in the places where they are to be employed as teachers.

That, in Districts where European or Eurasian young women are required as teachers in native schools, special encouragement be given to them to qualify in a vernacular language.

That grants for zenana teaching be recognized as a proper charge on public funds and be given under rules which will enable the agencies engaged in that work to obtain substantial aid for such secular teaching as may be tested by an Inspector or other female agency.

That Associations for the promotion of female education by examinations or otherwise be recognised by the Department, and encouraged by grants under suitable conditions.

That female inspecting agency be regarded as essential to the full development of female education, and be more largely employed than hitherto

That an alternative subject in examinations suitable for girls be established, corresponding in standard to the Matriculation examination, but having no relation to any existing University course.

That endeavours be made to secure the services of native gentlemen interested in female education on Committees for the supervision of girls' schools, and that European and Native ladies be also invited to assist such Committees.

(9).—*Recommendations as to Legislation.*

That the duties of Municipal and Local Boards in controlling or assisting schools under their supervision be regulated by local enactments suited to the circumstances of each Province.

That the area of any Municipal or rural unit of Local self-Government that may now or hereafter exist be declared to be a school-district, and school-boards be established for the management and control of schools placed under their jurisdiction in each such district.

That the control of each school-board over all schools within the said school-district be subject to the following provisions :—

- (a) that it be open to the Local Government to exclude any school, or any class of schools, other than schools of primary instruction for boys, from the control of such school-board ;
- (b) that any school which is situated in the said school-district, and which receives no assistance either from the Board or the Department, continue, if the managers so desire it, to be independent of the control of the school-board ;
- (c) that the managers of any institution which receives aid either from the Board or the Department continue to exercise in regard to such institution full powers of management subject to such limitations as the Local Government may from time to time impose as a condition of receiving aid ;
- (d) that the school-board may delegate to any body appointed by itself or subordinate to it any duties in regard to any school or class of institutions under its control which it thinks fit so to delegate.

That the Local Government declare from time to time what funds constituting a school-fund shall be vested in any school-board for educational purposes, and what proportion of such school-fund shall be assigned to any class of education.

That it be the duty of every school-board :—

- (a) to prepare an annual budget of its income and expenditure ;
- (b) to determine what schools shall be wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund, what schools are eligible for Grants-in-aid, and which of them shall receive aid ;
- (c) to keep a register of all schools, whether maintained at the cost of public funds, or aided or unaided, which are situated in its school-district ;
- (d) to construct and repair school-houses or to grant aid towards their construction or repair ;
- (e) generally to carry out any other of the objects indicated in the various recommendations of the Commission, which in the opinion of the Local Government can best be secured by legislative enactment, or by rules made under the Act.

That the appointment, reduction of salary, or dismissal, of teachers in schools maintained by the Board be left to the school-board ; provided that the said Board shall be guided in its appointments by any rules as to qualifications which may be laid down from time to time by the Department ; and provided that an appeal shall lie to the Department against any order of dismissal or reduction of salary.

That an appeal lie to the Department against any order of a board in regard to such matters as the Local Government shall specify.

That every school-board be required to submit to the Local Government through the Department an annual report of its administration, together with its accounts of income and expenditure, in such form and on such date as shall be prescribed by the Local Government ; and thereon the Local Government declare whether the existing supply of schools of any class, of which the supervision has been entrusted to such Board, is sufficient to secure adequate proportionate provision for the education of all classes of the community ; and in the event of the said Government declaring that the supply is insufficient, it determine from what sources and in what manner the necessary provision of schools shall be made.

That it be incumbent upon every Local Government or Administration to frame a Code of rules for regulating the conduct of education by Municipal and Local Boards in the Provinces subject to such Local Government or Administration.

That such Code shall define and regulate—

- (a) the internal mechanism of the Education Department in regard to direction, inspection, and teaching ;
- (b) the external relations of the Department to private individuals and public bodies engaged in the work of education ;
- (c) the scope, functions, and rules of the system of Grants-in-aid ;
- (d) the character of any special measures for the education of classes requiring exceptional treatment ;
- (e) the scope and divisions of the annual report upon the progress of public instruction, together with the necessary forms of returns.

That power be reserved to the Local Government from time to time to add to, cancel, or modify the provisions of the said Code.

That the Code be annually published in the official Gazette in such a form as to show separately all articles which have been cancelled or modified and all new articles which have been introduced since the publication of the last edition.

APPENDIX H.

THE RESOLUTION OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

ON

IMPROVED SYSTEM AND METHOD OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

(No. 10-382, dated Calcutta, 31st December 1887.)

The Government of India has from time to time, in the communications marginally noted, called the attention of Local Governments and Administrations to various recommendations made by the Education Commission for improvement in the system and methods of school and collegiate education. The Government of India is glad to believe that these recommendations are everywhere receiving their due share of attention, and that progress is being steadily made in the direction marked out by the Commission.

Resolution in the Home Department, No. $\frac{10}{309}$, dated 23rd October 1884.

Circular No. $\frac{12}{319-28}$, dated 24th October 1885.

Hitherto, however, attention has not been specially invited by the Government of India to those portions of the Commissioner's Report which deal with the subjects of discipline and moral training in schools and colleges; and as no subjects connected with the education are more important in the general interests of India or in the interests of students themselves, His Excellency the Governor-General in Council considers the time opportune for recommending them to the consideration of Local Governments and Administrations.

The question of discipline in public schools and colleges does not seem to have hitherto received any comprehensive consideration apart from the discussion of the subject by the Education Commission. It is only within comparatively recent times that the Government has come to deal with public instructions on the present wide scale, its first efforts having been directed more towards supplying a course of literary instructions for a few students of exceptional ability than towards the wholesale dissemination of Western learning. It thus came to pass that the want of a standard of discipline in our Indian public schools and colleges was not at first felt; it became manifest only in more recent years with the ever growing demand for education according to European principles and of a purely secular character.

It cannot be denied that the general extension in India of education on these principles has in some measure resulted in the growth of tendencies unfavourable to discipline and favourable to irreverence in the rising generation. Such tendencies are probably inseparable from that emancipation of thought which is one of the most noticeable results of our educational system. But though inevitable under the circumstances of this country, they are nevertheless, it will be admitted, tendencies which need control and direction, so far as control and direction can be supplied by

a judicious system of scholastic discipline and of such moral training as our policy of strict neutrality on religious matters enables us to apply.

In considering the application of such discipline and training to the facts of our Indian educational system, the first thing we have to do is to clearly define the standard of discipline at which we propose to aim. It would seem that the only standard to which it is possible to appeal in connexion with public schools and colleges in India is that recognized in the highest class of schools and colleges in England. Indigenous education furnishes no traditions which can be referred to for guidance in such matters. In the indigenous schools of early India, grotesque and ill-proportioned punishments established relations between teachers and pupils which were wanting in dignity; while in Sanserit seminaries the question of discipline did not in practice arise owing to the sacred character of the writings that were studied, the veneration for teachers which they inculcated, and the acts of submission and reverence that were exacted in all the relations of pupil to teacher.

There is no reason to fear that the English standard of discipline will be found deterrent by its severity. English education is now established upon so firm a basis in India, and its advantages as leading to a career in life are so generally recognized, that the Government can look confidently for support in introducing reforms, which have for their object the elevation of the tone of colleges and schools and the training of the present generation of students to those habits of self-respect which find expression in submission to authority, temperate language, and deference to the judgment of those older than themselves. The English public schools and universities aim, not merely at training the faculties of men for the acquisition of knowledge, but also at producing a distinct type of character well adapted for the uses of actual life. In various ways they attempt to teach practical wisdom, and there is every reason to expect that a closer approximation to their methods of education may result in fitting the members of similar institutions in India to take a useful part in social business of all kinds. Self-reliance can only spring from self-control, and self-control can be best taught by a system which looks beyond mere knowledge, and demands from those who come under it the exercise of their powers of moral judgment and of steady co-operation towards the higher aims of the institution to which they belong.

In considering what are the actual measures which the occasion demands, it is desirable, in the first place, to refer to the remarks which the Education Commission make upon the subject of discipline and moral training in schools. The following passages from their report are therefore reproduced here for facility of reference :—

Physical training.—We have given an account of the intellectual training provided under various standards in the public primary schools of India. We have now to inquire what steps are taken to promote the physical and moral well-being of the children In Bombay and the Central Provinces especially gymnastics and drill have been introduced as part of the school-routine, and school-masters are taught gymnastic exercises as part of their training. In Bengal, the opportunity of boys being collected for central examinations is often taken to encon-

rage athletic contests and to reward success in physical exercises. In the rest of India less systematic attention is paid to the subject We consider that a regular course of physical exercise would have specially good effect upon the minds and bodies of most Indian students. We, therefore, recommend *that physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school drill, and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school.*

Moral Training.—Much has been said in the evidence and the memorials before us regarding the importance of moral teaching. There is a wide-spread feeling, especially in the Punjab, that something should be done to promote the development of the science of right and wrong in the minds of scholars of all grades. Some have advocated the preparation of a moral text-book; others of a manual for the guidance of masters; whilst others, again, think that the object will be more surely gained by introducing lessons having a moral bearing into the ordinary reading books Undoubtedly they (text-books) offer one means of conveying moral teaching to pupils. But even where their importance is recognized, we doubt whether the teachers take sufficient advantage of any opportunities open to them of instilling moral principles and habits into the minds of their pupils It is, of course, impossible to secure that every teacher shall be a man of such moral character as to lend weight to his precepts. But the inspection of a school should, at any rate, include a careful inquiry whether the boys have had their attention directed to the moral significance of the lessons they have read. A simple manual for the guidance of teachers may assist them in this part of their duty; while the knowledge that some inquiry will be made by the Inspector will keep the subject before their minds. Nor should the moral value of strict and careful discipline be left out of sight. When a boy knows and keeps his proper place in the school, he will be in some degree trained to keep it in the world also. Manners afford some indication of moral training, and should on no account be regarded as beyond the teacher's care. It appears that a good deal of what is sometimes described as moral deterioration in Indian school boys is in reality a departure from the gentle and respectful manners of old times On the whole, though no general measure can secure moral training in primary schools, careful and constant attention may have some effect in promoting it. We, therefore, recommend *that all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct and character of the children, and that for the guidance of the masters a special manual be prepared.*

Religious Teaching.—It has already been shown how large a place religious teaching occupied in the course of instruction provided in indigenous schools, both high and low. Even from the essentially secular bazaar school in some parts of India religion is not excluded; while the complaint against maktabas has been that they confined their instruction to the Koran. Following a policy of strict religious neutrality, the Despatch of 1854 declared that the system of Grants-in-aid should be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the school assisted. Under the application of this stringent rule, aided institutions are at liberty to convey whatever religious or moral instruction they

please. But the Court of Directors declared that Government institutions were founded for the benefit of the whole population of India, and that it was therefore indispensable that the education conveyed in them should be exclusively secular Against the strict principle of excluding religious instruction from the school course various objections were raised and discussed in the Commission. It was urged that in some parts of India no difficulty would arise, because the Government school is attended by children all of whom belong to one religious sect; that part of the policy of transferring the management of primary schools to local committees was to permit of wider and readier adaptation to local wants, which might possibly include a desire for religious teaching; and that, finally, these Boards might be trusted not to do violence to religious prejudices or local feelings, or at least that the reservation of a right of appeal from a dissenting minority would secure justice to all. On the other hand, a majority of us considered that religious feeling was so inflammable in India, and sectarianism so prevalent, that it was not safe to depart from a policy which had worked well in the past. The value of religious education was admitted on all sides, but it was hoped that home-instruction and the increase of aided schools in which religious instruction may be freely given would to a large extent minimize the recognized evil of banishing religion from Government primary schools. The Commission by a large majority adopted the following recommendation, *that the existing rules as to religious teaching in Government schools be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by Municipal or Local Fund Boards*. In dissenting from this recommendation, one member of the Commission observed that it must not be implied that the existing rules precluded religious instruction; for, on the contrary, teachers were allowed, in accordance with the Despatches just quoted, to give such instruction in the school before or after the ordinary school-hours, and several instances could be mentioned of teachers availing themselves of this permission especially in the Bombay schools for Muhammadan boys. Another member remarks that religious instruction was especially desirable in girls' schools. The mover of the recommendation, with the assent of his supporters, disclaimed any intention of desiring to alter existing practice, and recommendation was adopted on this understanding.

Inter-School Rules.—There are other ways in which the mutual relations of schools need to be regulated with care. In towns where there are several schools—and it is only in them that competition need be considered—there is a danger of discipline being injured and the tone of education lowered by too keen a competition for pupils. The desire also that pupils commonly feel to be placed in the highest class they can get admitted to causes considerable danger of their changing their schools so often that steady progress is greatly interfered with. This danger is recognized and some provision made against it in all provinces; but the weak point of all the arrangements at present in force is that they are voluntary or semi-voluntary, and that thus a new manager or head-master who does not feel himself bound by the engagement of his predecessor may introduce confusion at any time Thus the hold of all the head-masters upon their pupils is relaxed, and discipline suffers. It would obviate these dangers if all institutions connected in any way with the Department could be brought to accept a definite set of

rules The gain in teaching lessons of steadiness and perseverance to pupils and in improving discipline would be very great. Also—what we value even more—the enforcement of such rules would draw schools under all kinds of management closer together, would make their relations with the Department more intimate, and would tend powerfully to develop the feeling that all schools are working for a common end, and should have no rivalry except in promoting the interests of the entire community. We therefore recommend *that managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing as far as the circumstances of the locality allow (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion to a higher class by changing his school.*

The recommendations which emerge from the preceding remarks of the Education Commission are the following :—

- (a) the introduction of the inter-school rules ;
- (b) the opening of play-grounds and gymnasia ;
- (c) the prohibition of religious teaching in Government and Board Schools, during school hours, qualified by the injunction that inspecting officers should see that the teaching and discipline in schools are such as to exert a right influence on the manner, conduct, and character of the pupils.

A few words of comment upon each of those recommendations seem called for here.

The adoption of rules defining the conditions under which pupils should be allowed to pass from one school to another is, it is understood, in accordance with the practice observed by all schools of high repute in England, and the Governor-General in Council has no doubt that great good would follow the introduction in India generally of a well-devised system of rules to that end. The Government of India is aware that in Madras, Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces such a system of rules is now largely enforced, and he understands that where enforced the system is working well; but he has reason to fear that even in the Provinces named many head-masters of schools which have to compete with each other are more careful to attract pupils by indulgence than to subject them to discipline of which they do not understand the tonic value. It seems, therefore, expedient that measures should be taken to extend the system to all schools in all Provinces aided or supported by public funds as a condition of the continuance of such aid, and to move the Senates of the Universities to use the influence at their command to procure its adoption in schools and colleges which do not receive aid from Government.

In regard to the provision of play-grounds and gymnasia, experience in other countries has shown that, not only are they useful in engaging the attention of boys out of school hours, but that they have a direct bearing on the formation of a manly type of character. In some Indian provinces, wherever gymnastics and field games, such as cricket, have been introduced, students have shown great aptitude for those exercises, and there is ground for hope that their recognition as part of a regular

course of school training may render the pursuit of them even more popular than it is at present, and effect an improvement in the physique of the rising generation. In order to stimulate proficiency in such exercises, it seems to be well worth considering whether a system of marks and prizes for efficiency in gymnastics should not be everywhere introduced.

In regard to the provision of play-grounds, the action of the Government must of course be limited by financial considerations ; but it may be reasonably hoped that in this matter private liberality will not cease to supplement the deficiencies of educational funds. The Government Gazettes bear frequent testimony to the public spirit which finds expression in founding and endowing schools. The foundation and endowment of play-grounds and gymnasia are objects no less worthy of public beneficence.

Finally, the recommendation that Inspecting officers should insist upon the maintenance of proper discipline in schools and of a satisfactory method of teaching presupposes the existence of a standard of discipline, which it is the object of the present communication to establish.

The preceding recommendations are all that the Education Commission make in connexion with discipline and moral training in schools. A slight consideration of them will show that good so far as they go, they go but a little way towards the establishment of that standard of discipline of which we feel the want. It is manifest that as a body of rules whose operation will tend to create such a standard, they are insufficient, and need to be supplemented by other rules which, dealing with various phases of school life, will have the effect of creating a healthy tone of feeling, self-restraint, reverence for and submission to authority. Without pretending on the present occasion to prescribe such a standard of discipline, the Governor-General in Council considers that the principles on which it should be based may be found in the following directions :—

- (1) the provision of efficient training schools and colleges for teachers, and the employment as teachers only of those who have given satisfaction during a course of training :
- (2) the extension of a system of teaching having a direct bearing upon personal conduct :
- (3) the repression of breaches of discipline in accordance with certain well defined rules :
- (4) the introduction of conduct registers :
- (5) the extension of the hostel or boarding-house system to the fullest extent that the public finances or private liberality will permit :
- (6) introduction of a system of monitors to be made responsible for the conduct of the scholars while in and as far as possible while out of school :
- (7) the exclusion from school of boys who have not reached a certain class by a certain age :

In regard to the first of these suggestions, it is unquestionably true that a good moral tone is, in the first place, best acquired by a school boy insensibly from his family ; in the second place from his teachers, and in the last place (which is indeed the consequence of the other two) from the public opinion of the school-boy world in which he moves. Over the home life of the school-boy or student we can directly exercise but little appreciable influence ; but the conviction that it makes entirely for good should not induce us to spare any effort or lose any opportunity of moulding his character during school hours. From this point of view, the provision of good teachers is of the greatest importance to the well-being of the country, and the signal successes which in India have attended the instruction and training imparted by many devoted and accomplished teachers, whose names it is unnecessary to mention, prove that the school can be made a no less effectual nursery of morality than of mere literary knowledge. But His Excellency in Council is afraid that in recent times the importance of the careful selection of teachers has not been always fully appreciated ; and that in public schools the character of the head of the school with respect to the healthy influence which he is likely to exercise over the boys and his power of moulding their character is not, as it should be, regarded as a most essential qualification for the post. His Excellency in Council also fears that the facilities for training teachers for the various classes of schools have not received in some provinces that measure of attention which the subject so well deserves, and that Grants-in-aid are sometimes given to schools managed by other than well qualified teachers. These are matters to which he would invite serious attention. No money is better spent than that allotted to the support of efficient training schools and colleges for teachers, and money is not well spent if granted to schools presided over by untrained and incompetent teachers in which discipline and moral training are relegated to a secondary place. The Governor-General in Council is of opinion that in the truest interests of education the cost of providing thoroughly good training schools and colleges for teachers of English as well as of vernacular schools should be regarded as a first charge in the educational grant ; and that any province which is now unprovided with institutions suitable for the effectual training of the various classes of teachers required should take measures by retrenchment, if necessary, to establish the requisite training institutions. Until training schools and colleges established in this country succeed in supplying trained native teachers in sufficient numbers and of the requisite quality, it is worth while considering whether for the position of head-masters of the more important schools it might not be desirable and consistent with native feeling to make the sphere of selection wider than it at present seems in practice to be. It might be often found desirable to engage trained head-masters from England for a definite period of, say, five or seven years who would introduce and establish a tone and system of discipline which other schools might emulate.

Although attention should be, in the first place, given to the provision of really competent teachers, example being better than precept in forming the tone of a boy's mind, still precept should not be overlooked. In aided schools religious instruction may of course be freely given and the Governor-General in Council would be sincerely glad if the number of aided schools and colleges in which reli-

gious instruction is prominently recognized were largely increased. It is in this direction that the best solution of this difficult problem can be found. Even in schools supported by the State something in the way of religious instruction can be effected out of school hours in accordance with established principles. But in addition to this something more should in the opinion of the Government of India be now attempted. It was one of the recommendations of the Education Commission "that an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book based on the fundamental principles of natural religion;" and although the Government of India at the time did not seek to enforce that recommendation, the Secretary of State was of opinion that it should not be altogether ignored, and His Lordship in a recent Despatch, of which a copy is forwarded herewith, desires that this matter be now seriously taken up. The Secretary of State's wishes on this point coincide with the plan which His Excellency in Council has been for some time considering and the time has now arrived for giving effect to it. It is believed that in some provinces the school books now in use contain a variety of moral lessons of a non-sectarian character, which in the hands of competent teachers might on suitable occasions be made the text of explanations and illustrations. But in other Provinces the books in use are either not of this description, or they are ill-adapted for the object in view. In all cases it is desirable to review the text-books now in use in the light of the Secretary of State's Despatch and to recast them possibly with the view of introducing into them extracts from the various great writers who have dealt with the question of personal conduct in its various aspects. The influence of a text-book so compiled will be all the greater, as the invaluable quality of literary merit, which would probably be wanting in a book written for the occasion, would be secured. The establishment of select school libraries of choice books may also have a good effect in providing the boys with wholesome general literature. On this matter of the best way of giving effect to the wishes of the Secretary of State and the Government of India, I am to invite an early expression of the opinion of His Excellency the Governor in Council.

Returning to the question of moral instructions and the recommendations of the Education Commission in regard to it, I am to observe that no duty should be performed by Inspecting officers with greater care and thoroughness than the duty of seeing that the teaching and discipline in the school is "calculated to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children." To this department of a teacher's duty special attention is now paid in the United Kingdom and to the orders in force there attention might with much advantage be paid in India. "My Lords," says an important Circular * from the Council of Education addressed to Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, "are anxious that you should lose no suitable opportunity of impressing upon both managers and teachers the great responsibility which rests upon them, over and above the intellectual teaching, in regard to the moral training of the children committed to their charge. You will express your special approbation of all schools where, from the knowledge which you have gained by repeated visits, you observe that a high moral tone is

*Parliamentary Papers C.—1964 of 1878.

maintained; you will not fail to enlarge upon the Article (19a) in the Code respecting discipline, as showing the interest taken by Parliament and by their Lordships in this all-important subject; and where it is not satisfactorily attended to, you will not hesitate to recommend a reduction of the grant. You will, in the spirit of the Article, urge the managers to do all in the power to secure that the teachers maintain a high standard of honesty, truth and honor in their schools, and that they* not only inculcate upon the children the general duty of consideration and respect for others, but also the special duty of obedience to, and reverence for, their parents; and also to encourage such training in schools, in matters affecting their daily life, as may help to improve and raise the character of their homes." It is in this spirit and with this object that the Governor-General in Council would have teachers in Indian Schools and Colleges direct their teaching, so far as may be, and it is with a view to bring about such a desirable result that I am now to commend the subject to the early and earnest attention of the Government of Madras. This is, I am to add, a phase of the educational question to which the attention of Local Boards and Municipal Committees, who are now entrusted with responsible functions in Educational matters, should be specially invited.

In regard to the question of punishments for breaches of school discipline, the chief object to be aimed at should be that the punishment should fall on the offender, and not, as it would appear is now frequently the case, on the offender's parents. Wherever in Indian schools moderate corporal chastisement is a recognized method of school punishment, the question presents no serious difficulty. But when the age of the student or the tone of local public feeling upon the point renders the infliction of corporal chastisement open to objection, the question is beset with more difficulties. A fine affects the unoffending parents instead of the offending pupil. It is perhaps impossible altogether to avoid fines, specially in case of the more advanced boy; but as a general rule, fines do not seem to be an appropriate method of enforcing school discipline. Imposition tasks, deprivation of privileges, a judicious use of the rod (when local feeling permits its use) in the case of young pupils, and finally expulsion in cases of persistent and aggravated misconduct—these seem to be the chief methods of punishment for breaches of discipline available to head-masters. With these remarks the Government of India is content to leave the matter to the judgment and discretion of Local Governments.

But methods of school punishment are matters of very secondary importance compared with methods of bringing out and strengthening the impulses for good which predominate in youthful minds. It is here, far more than in the maintenance of discipline, by means of punishments, that a really good head-master makes his influence felt. Nothing should be left untried, which tends to the development of these healthy impulses, and the result should be periodically recorded in good conduct registers. With reference to the adoption of good conduct registers, all that seems necessary to suggest is that a form of conduct register should be prescribed, extracts from which should be sent to the parents or guardians of the boy concerned at stated intervals, and it might be found convenient to exhibit in it the stage of progress attained in each branch of study. The entry regarding general conduct should be filled in by the head-master, and should represent his opinion of

the boy's moral character and behaviour, based upon his personal observation and the reports of his subordinates. At the year's end prizes should be allotted for good conduct of such value as to make them objects of eager competition.

In order to enable the head-master to keep up his personal knowledge of all boys in the school, it is worth considering whether a practice under which each class appears periodically before the head-master should not be adopted in schools where it is not already the practice.

In this connexion it may also be suggested that measures might be taken to provide that in filling up appointments in Government offices, special regard shall be paid to the entries in the conduct register. At present applicants for such appointments frequently produce certificates of character given with reference to the appointments sought. Under the system now suggested, disorderly conduct during the closing years of school career would seriously affect the candidate's prospects of obtaining official employment after leaving school, and no doubt private employers would not be slow to follow the example set by Government in this respect.

The fifth suggestion, namely, the establishment of hostels or boarding-houses, by which students who are strangers in large towns or cities may be saved from the pitfalls which surround them, and may be made amenable to something like home discipline, needs no recommendation here. The advantages of well-managed boarding-houses, especially in the large cities and towns, must be manifest to all who consider the subject. No greater benefit could be conferred on the students attending our larger schools and colleges than the establishment of attached boarding-houses and compulsory residence therein. The provision of such houses should be earnestly recommended to the liberality of the public, and when provided, the enforcement in them of a high standard of morality and discipline should be a subject of the watchful care to the local and educational authorities. It need hardly be pointed out that an ill-managed boarding-house in a large town might easily become a hot-bed of evil.

The appointment of selected boys from the higher class of school to be monitors for the purpose of maintaining proper discipline during, and, as far as possible, out of school hours, for reporting breaches of rules, and generally for maintaining a high standard of conduct and manners is commended to careful consideration. It is believed the system has been tried with success in some Indian schools, notably in the Elphinstone High School in Bombay, so that it seems needless to enter upon the details of the scheme here. The principle of associating the leading boys of a school in its internal Government is well known in England, where it has worked for many generations with remarkable success. Among its known advantages may be noticed that it tends to diffuse the influence of the masters, and especially of the head-master, through a wider circle than it could otherwise reach. Through the monitorial system the personal influence of the masters is brought to bear immediately upon a limited number of more advanced students whom they can know intimately, and who, in their turn, communicate the impressions they have

received to a larger number of younger boys. With the monitors, on the other hand, the trust reposed in them tends to foster a sense of responsibility, brings them to look upon the reputation and prosperity of the school as in some sense committed to their keeping, and prepares them for the larger duties of actual life. No doubt this system is not fully applicable to schools where none of the pupils are boarders; but even in these cases, great benefits will be derived from its partial adoption; while in hostels it is probable that it would work well. Here, indeed, there might even be room for that further development of the system by which the younger boys are allotted as pupils to the elder, who are made responsible, not merely for their moral conduct, but also for their diligence in their work. This, however, would be a matter for the educational authorities to consider.

The last suggestion is the removal from school of boys of a certain age. The expulsion of boys who are incorrigibly ill-conducted is, of course, a head-master's imperative duty; but, incorrigible misconduct apart, experience has shown that a large proportion of moral evil and disregard for rules is traceable to the influence of youths who remain at school to a comparatively advanced age without rising beyond the lower classes, and who exercise an evil influence over the younger boys in the same class. Such youths often form a nucleus of resistance to authority: they are too old for effective punishment, while their chances of academical success are too small for them to take an active interest in the real work of the school. If on consideration it appears to His Excellency in Council that such a state of things prevails in the Madras Presidency to such an extent as to call for remedy, then I am to ask whether advantage might not result from a rule that any boy who through want of diligence and attention to study has not risen to a certain class by the time he has attained a certain age should be required to leave the school. It may be that in India such a rule would not be acceptable to Native Society, and having regard to the advanced age at which Muhammadan boys especially come to school, it would certainly be necessary to make the rule, if adopted, an elastic one, but it is well to consider whether the adoption of even an elastic rule of this description might not be desirable in itself and agreeable to native feeling. If not agreeable to native feeling it should not be adopted.

The reforms sketched in the foregoing paragraphs make no pretension to originality or to exhaustiveness. Some of them are already practised in one Province, others in another; but they have, so far as the Government of India is aware, been nowhere worked up into a connected scheme or system. They are here thrown out as suggestions for consideration and development rather than as rules to be definitely adopted in their present shape. It appears, however, to the Government of India that the adoption of some such rules would have a beneficial effect upon the tone of Indian schools. From the nature of the case, any sudden improvement is not to be expected; but it might be hoped that by such improvements in system the elder boys in Indian schools will in course of time learn those lessons of obedience, moderation, and self-respect which it is the effort of all scholastic systems to impart. In any event we may hope that by merely bringing this great educational difficulty to notice, the leaders of native society will realize how closely the interests of all that is best in that society are bound up with its younger

representatives. They will, doubtless, bear in mind the saying that the future of a nation depends upon its young men, and will bring all their influence to bear to support the Government in the attempt to render school education a fitter and fuller training for public duties.

Should this be the case, the problem of dealing with discipline in colleges will be materially simplified, as undergraduates will enter the colleges with habits formed and characters developed by the wholesome discipline of the schools, and will be naturally disposed towards order, propriety, and good behaviour.

Here positive rules, the methods appropriate for schools, are comparatively ineffective. They may serve to get rid of the wilfully vicious or obstinately idle members, but they will not do much to raise the tone of the whole collegiate body. This can only be done by distinct moral teaching, and by that moral supervision which, to use the words of the Education Commission, "all admit to be good and useful, and which all desire to see made more thorough than it is at present." In the case of colleges, even more than in the case of schools, doubts have indeed been expressed as to the possibility of introducing distinct moral teaching where there is no religious instruction, and in their Report the Education Commission point as a means of meeting the difficulty, to the establishment of aided colleges in which religious teaching can be fully recognized. It has been already clearly stated that the Governor-General in Council entirely approves of the views of the Education Commission on this point and would gladly see an increase in the number of aided colleges and schools, in which religious instruction may be freely given. But his Excellency in Council is bound to say that though there is greater difficulty in introducing moral teaching of a non-sectarian character into State than into aided colleges, that difficulty does not seem to have been hitherto seriously faced by Education Departments generally, and, until failure follows an earnest effort at imparting moral instruction in colleges, the Government of India is unwilling to admit that success may not be secured. To this subject then His Excellency in Council desires that early attention may be given and a practical attempt made to give effect to the recommendation of the Education Commission upon the subject.

In regard to the benefits accruing from moral supervision by Principals and Professors over students in colleges there is no room for doubt; and the problem for solution is, how such supervision may be made more effective than it now appears to be, and how the sentiments and habits of students may be best influenced for good. In this matter far more is to be expected from the example and personal qualities of the Principal and Professors than from rules; but rules in support of authority may be useful, and from this point of view the following regulations (among others) may be beneficially enforced:—

- (a) Weekly meetings should be held by the Principal and the Professors to consider questions of discipline,
- (b) The Principal should have the power of ordering the expulsion or rustication of a student, and of fining him for disorderly conduct,
- (c) Every Professor should have the power of suspending a student for a limited period of time, or of fining him without reference to the Principal.

In conclusion, I am to commend the whole subject to early and careful attention, for the importance of the considerations thus brought to notice cannot be exaggerated. The true interests of education are bound up with the solution of the problems now touched upon. It is sometimes observed by the opponents of our educational system that the want of reverence and the insubordination which is sometimes imputed to Indian students is merely part of a wider movement over which it would be vain to attempt to exercise any control; and that while Western civilization is sapping the frame-work of Indian society, it is unequal to laying the foundation stone of reconstruction. A general statement of this character cannot be accepted as any argument against the adoption of measures to remedy an acknowledged evil. The magnitude of the change in Native society may well have been exaggerated; but even if it be allowed that change is taking place to the fullest extent supposed, the old order must be replaced by a new one; and there is hope that the new may be better than the old. Let it be granted that European intellectual training has cut loose the rising generation from many of the moral and social bonds of their forefathers; other forms of restraint must sooner or later take their place. Western education, if persevered in, must in time bring with it Western principles of discipline and self-control. The intellectual part of the process has made good progress; it remains to introduce the moral element which forms the most prominent factor of the European theory of education. The reforms of system indicated in the foregoing paragraphs have this object in view, although they may not be all that is required. They seek to fill the vacuum which a purely intellectual training has created, and to mitigate the evils of a one-sided development.

APPENDIX I.

DR. DUNCAN'S MEMORANDUM ON MORAL EDUCATION.

With reference to Proceedings No 719, dated 14th February 1888, I have the honor to make the following remarks:—

I would respectfully beg leave to say a word or two with respect to the casual connection assumed in the letter of the Government of India to exist between the education imparted in our schools and colleges and “the growth of tendencies unfavourable to discipline and favourable to irreverence in the rising generation.” No one could be more sensible than I am of the imperfections of our educational system and methods, but I cannot believe that schools and colleges have been largely instrumental in bringing about the state of things complained of. I consider, on the contrary, that we, teachers, have cause to complain that the tone of our schools has been prejudicially affected by tendencies unfavourable to authority invading them from without. The tone of thought and feeling pervading any society can hardly fail to reveal itself also in the school-going portion of that society. The present state of thought and feeling in this country is a part of that restless, critical, unsubmitive spirit which is at present manifesting itself in all parts of the civilized world, showing itself to be no respecter of institutions, political or religious, however powerful—hallowed by time or sanctified by sacred associations. Indian society is breathing the same social and political atmosphere as all other civilized communities—an atmosphere which happens at present to be deficient in reverence for authority and in willingness to submit to it. Are the seeds of these tendencies sown in our schools and colleges and fostered and made to fructify there? I think not. Beyond what naturally follows from “that emancipation of thought,” which is one of the first fruits of a liberal education everywhere, I do not believe that the system of education pursued in India has had any hand in fostering “the growth of tendencies unfavorable to discipline and favorable to irreverence.” My contentions—that these tendencies belong to the world that lies outside our schools and colleges, that they color the thoughts and feelings and aspirations of the grown-up generation, and that, from this outside world, they invade our schools and infect our pupils—these contentions are borne out by the two following considerations:—

First, that it was not till after the political and racial excitement of recent years had spread throughout India that the youth attending schools and colleges showed signs of turbulence and insubordination; and

Second, that these tendencies were practically confined to those provinces in the north of India where political and race feelings were most bitter. In the Madras Presidency, where these feelings never ran very high, our educational institutions have hitherto enjoyed an almost absolute

immunity from such disturbances; and to the honor of the students of this college, be it said, there has not, during the 18 years I have been connected with them, been any other disposition manifested than that of cheerful and loyal obedience to the rules of the institution. It would nevertheless have been folly to have shut one's eyes to the signs of the times, and I could not help foreseeing years ago that schools and colleges could not fail to be affected to some extent by the wave of political excitement which was spreading over the land, and that teachers must be prepared to meet with greater difficulties in imposing discipline in the future than they had experienced in the past.

It is a mere truism to say that the teacher should do his utmost to counteract every tendency to insubordination and irreverence from whatever source originating and should look upon the moral training of his pupils as a chief concern. And no teacher imbued with a due sense of his vocation will dare to assert that moral training already receives that share of attention which its supreme importance demands, or that teachers generally are sufficiently skilled in the methods on which it ought to be conducted. At the same time I cannot help remarking how easy it is to commit the mistake of expecting too much of the teacher, and of paralysing his efforts by throwing upon him the sole or chief responsibility for the moral failures of the rising generation.

The difficulties the teacher has to encounter in this part of his work are manifold and great; and, truth requires me to add, are sometimes of his own creation. In my annual report on the Presidency College for 1884-85, I called attention in the following words to the demoralizing effect of the keen competition for pupils carried on by schools and colleges at the beginning of every year:—

“Persons not engaged in educational work can have no idea of the mean artifices which some pupils resort to at the beginning of the scholastic year. They formally join the college; having their names entered in the general register as well as in my own private book, and after attending classes for periods varying from a few days to six or eight weeks, go away and join another institution without paying their fees and without giving the least notice to me or to anyone else. As by the rules regulating Government and aided institutions the Head-master or Principal is bound to make inquiries as to the previous conduct of candidates for admission, and is forbidden to admit them unless satisfied that they have paid their fees in the college they have left, I am reluctantly compelled to conclude that those who close their short careers in this institution by an act of dishonorable meanness begin them in the institutions they join by untruthfulness. The number of those who behave in this way is, it is true, not large—not more than twelve coming under this category this year. But the smallness of the number does not make it the less desirable to adopt measures to prevent young men of this character from connecting themselves with this college for however short a time. For if I interpret aright your own views and those of Government, it is a settled principle that this college must strive to set as high an example of moral excellence as of intellectual acquirements.

"The state of things I have described is due partly to the eagerness of heads of institutions to increase their attendance roll. Boys and their parents are in consequence often led to fancy that they are conferring a favor on the institution on whom they propose to bestow their patronage, and, as a further consequence, they try to play off one Head-master or Principal against another with a view to find out which will offer the better terms. This is known to the head of every college or school which happens to have other institutions in its neighbourhood; but the bad moral effect it has on the rising generation is not sufficiently realized or grappled with. Yet the evil must be faced if teachers are to be true to their mission, and I know of no institutions which are in a better position to make a decided stand against such practices and the erroneous ideas which lie at the root of them than those maintained by Government, and none on which the duty is more incumbent than on the Presidency College."

It is certainly not a matter of surprise that the pupil finding himself made so much of—two or three schools eagerly contending with one another to secure him—should come to look upon himself as master of the situation, and as conferring a favor on the institution in which he finally decides to read. Nor is it to be wondered at that the teachers should relax his discipline lest the pupils should resent his authority and transfer their patronage to some other school. The state of things depicted is real, not imaginary, and will continue until our pupils are made to understand that the benefits of education are benefits conferred not on their teachers but on themselves. But this they will not understand until heads of school cease in every way to underbid one another in order to attract pupils. Inter-school rules, loyally adhered to, will tend to render the enforcement of discipline easier during term, but they will not render it possible to establish and maintain the natural relation of subordination of the pupil to the master so long as the latter, at the beginning of every year after the great public examinations, lowers himself to the position of an eager suitor for the suffrages of the former.

The Government of India have rightly given the foremost place among their recommendations to the employment of trained teachers and the provision of efficient training schools. This is a matter which has for many years been attended to in this Presidency, and during recent years no branch of general education has been more sedulously and intelligently developed. Happily also, and to some extent as the result of the greater efficiency of our training schools, the estimation in which training is held has greatly risen during recent years not only among managers of schools, but among the general public.

It is greatly to be regretted that the improvement in our training schools and colleges has not been accompanied by improvement in the number of young persons who come up to these institutions after having deliberately and out of love for it chosen the profession of teaching as their life's work. Schoolmastering is still looked upon by the majority of young teachers as a mere stepping stone to something else, or as a temporary stop-gap, or as a pis-aller. From such teachers we may and do frequently get fair intellectual results, especially such results as can be tested by examinations, but in the majority of cases it would be vain to expect

from them the exercise of those subtle refined influences which count for so much in the moral training of the young.

I should like to see more generally recognized among teachers the necessity for some scientific knowledge of the structure and functions of the mind of the young. We do not allow men to practise the medical profession without proof that they know something about the structures and functions of the body, yet we do not hesitate to entrust the delicate organization of a child's mind to the bungling experiments of ignorant teachers. A certain amount of knowledge of the workings of the mind is doubtless picked up by everybody in the course of experience, just as everybody acquires some acquaintance with the structures and functions of the body. But we do not regard this latter amount of knowledge as a sufficient equipment for the medical man. In no profession, in fact except in that of teaching, do we dispense with special instruction regarding the structure and function of the things with which the profession deals. As to the not uncommon assertion that Psychology is but an aggregate of guesses or conjectures more or less crude, and that it can never be anything else, I shall only say that this science either contains a considerable body of well-ascertained facts and principles of the utmost value to the teacher or it does not. If it does contain such facts and principles, it is all-important that the teacher should acquaint himself with them; if it does not, it is idle to speak about a *system* of education, whether intellectual or moral,—idle therefore to discuss whether it can be improved, there being no other foundation for a system of education than the phenomena and laws of the mind. I am aware that in the higher training institutions in this Presidency this subject has of late received a considerable share of attention, but in the elementary normal schools the subject is almost entirely neglected. The attempts, such as they are, to give some knowledge of the minds of the young rarely go beyond such intellectual faculties as memory, imagination and reasoning. The faculties that bear more directly on conduct, the order of appearance of the emotions, the circumstances that affect their development, the influence they severally have on the cultivation of the intellectual faculties on the one hand and on the growth of moral character on the other,—these and similar questions lie outside the curriculum of the elementary normal pupil. It is not necessary nor desirable that normal pupils who are to teach in elementary schools should be introduced to the vexed question of the Freedom of the Will or to any of the thousand and one metaphysical subtleties of the different philosophical sects, but it is both desirable and necessary that they should know in what form the will first makes its appearance, how it grows up, what are the best means of strengthening it when it is weak, of directing it when it is strong. When it is remembered that all discipline in the last resort is effected through the feelings and the will, it will be seen how essential is a knowledge of this much-neglected side of human nature.

The teacher's own moral character (and I use that expression to cover all the attributes of the teacher except the intellectual and the physical), though more difficult to gauge, should nevertheless be carefully watched by the head of a normal school, and should have great weight in helping to decide whether the aspirant possesses the qualifications requisite for his work. His Excellency the Governor-

General in Council expresses his fear "that in public schools the character of the head of the school with respect to the healthy influence which he is likely to exercise over the boys and his power of moulding their character is not, as it should be, regarded as a most essential qualification for the post." In this Presidency, as far as I am aware, the managers of schools are, as a rule, careful to see that their teachers enjoy a good reputation for moral character; but I do not think that parents are sufficiently alive to the importance of the subject. With many parents the chief considerations are the probable success of a teacher's pupils at the public examinations and the comparative lowness of the school fees. Given those two things, parents frequently ignore every other consideration and do not hesitate to remove their children from a well conducted school to one perhaps only newly started by a man whose moral, if not legal, delinquencies are matters of public notoriety. Managers of schools may do their best to secure teachers of high moral character, and teachers may determine to make the moral training of their pupils a chief concern. But all this will be of little avail so long as parents are ready to sacrifice the highest interests of their children to the gratification of some petty motive of economy or to the securing of some immediate wordly advantage.

In my evidence before the Education Commission, I recommended "that morality be taught in schools in the way in which it is taught at home and in the social life of the young." Morality cannot be taught as a branch of knowledge forming part of the school curriculum, nor is a special text-book the best means of inculcating it. That danger of neglecting the spirit for the letter, which has to be particularly guarded against when text-books are used in teaching the ordinary branches of knowledge, would be much more menacing were the attempt made to teach morality through a specially prepared text-book. It is, however, premature to forecast the consequences of the introduction of such a book into our schools as long as the very possibility of a generally acceptable book being written remains open to question. Such a work might be compiled (1) on a religious basis, (2) on the basis of natural religion as recommended by the Education Commission, or (3) on what is called a secular basis. The first view has not, as far as I am aware, been seriously entertained in connection with a book for Indian schools, the variety of religious beliefs forming an apparently insuperable obstacle. The theological coloring of a text-book, written on the basis of the fundamental principles of natural religion, would, I fear, be too neutral to satisfy the earnest advocates of ethico-religious instruction, while a book compiled on a so-called secular basis would have even less chance of being accepted.

The Government of India do not, I gather, even now consider the preparation of a moral text-book to be the best solution of the difficulty, preferring that the ordinary reading books should be so compiled as to contain copious and suitable materials for bringing the customary virtues and duties before the minds of pupils. This is, in my opinion, the proper course to pursue—a course which has been steadily kept in view in preparing the readers in use in this Presidency. In drawing up such lessons as well as in teaching them, the moral should be kept in the background, there being few things young people dislike more than lessons with a conspicuous moral. Nor is anything more likely to defeat the end in view than to

make it appear that the facts of the lesson are meant to be subordinate to the moral of it. It is a mistake to draw a hard and fast line between the intellectual and moral sides of our nature and to assume that purely intellectual ideas have not in themselves a moral value in virtue of which they crystallize around them, whether we will it or not, moral sentiments in harmony with themselves. It has been well said that, without going the length of Socrates and resolving virtue into knowledge and vice into ignorance, we may lay it down that the more we awaken intellectual activity, the more do we eliminate prejudice and passion, and the more effectually do we guard the character against the temptations of life. The best thing that a teacher can do from the moral no less than from the intellectual point of view is to present the facts and principles as accurately and clearly as possible without attempting to draw out explicitly the moral lesson they teach. The pupils will do that for themselves unconsciously and to much better purpose. Let him store their minds with ideas of the true, the beautiful and the good, but not spoil the effect by demanding of them then and there an explicit acknowledgment of the truth, the beauty, or the goodness of what he has been teaching.

I am not aware on what grounds the opinion rests that the moral tone of schools in which religious instruction is given is higher than that of Government schools in which such instruction is not given. And to me it is a matter of the deepest regret that this supposed moral imperfection of so-called secular education should be even by implication accepted as a truth by the Government of India. There is not, in my opinion, a particle of evidence to show that in India the pupils of mission schools and colleges are one whit superior in reverence, in recognition of authority, or in any moral quality whatsoever, to those educated in the so-called secular schools and colleges. To argue that moral instruction must be more efficient in a school in which religious instruction is given, seeing that morality depends on religion, is to take for granted that all men are agreed as to the mutual relations of morality and religion; is, in fact, to reason from an assumption which begs the very question in dispute. The moral tone of mission schools must be high indeed if they not only send forth pupils of higher moral character than secular schools, but do so in spite of at least one special temptation to which pupils of secular schools are not exposed. The special temptation I allude to is insincerity. Is it, I ask, reasonable to expect habits of reverence and sincerity to grow up in a school in which the pupils are compelled to begin the work of the day by an outward participation in the worship of a faith alien to the majority of them and utterly distasteful to many of them? The effects of Christian religious instruction on English youths in an English school cannot be adduced in support of similar instruction being imparted to Hindu youths in India. The religious instruction the former receive is in harmony with the thought and feeling of the domestic and social life they live and keeps alive within them the ideas and aspirations which pervade their life outside the school. The religious instruction which the orthodox Hindu youth receives in a mission school contradicts in numerous ways the thoughts and feeling of his family and his society. In school he is compelled, as a condition of his receiving secular instruction, to participate in, and show reverence for, a worship which in his heart he does not believe, which outside school is accustomed to hear spoken of, it may be, with

despite, and conversion to which would be regarded by his parents as the greatest calamity that could befall them and him. Is this the way to foster reverence for things sacred? Is it thus that habits of sincerity and truthfulness are required? Are the Hindus so little ready to sacrifice their convictions to their interests that we must catch them young and begin betimes to train them to tread this path of doubtful morality? Would not the introduction of a conscience clause into mission schools be to the advantage of religion as well as of morality? Were attendance on religious exercises optional, there would probably grow up more reverence for those exercises, while the young would be less exposed to temptation from their besetting sin of insincerity.

In my answer to question 39, when giving evidence before the Education Commission, I stated in a general way my views as to the mutual relations of morality and religion and as to the sphere of religious instruction in moral education. In the moral training of the young three ends have to be kept in view. First, to each what courses of action are right and what are wrong, the conceptions of right and wrong being themselves acquired in the course of such instruction. Second, to rouse and develop those emotions which urge to right conduct and act as a barrier against wrong-doing. Third, to watch and assist the child in his efforts to do right actions, fostering those efforts day by day until they become confirmed habits, and discouraging, thwarting and suppressing all opposing tendencies.

Now, with reference to the first of these—the teaching what actions are right and what are wrong—how do we proceed to show the young that a given action or course of conduct is right and therefore a duty? If we are dealing with very young children, we present it to them as an authoritative statement which they must accept. As they advance in years we begin to support the authoritative statement with reasons, pursuing in this case a similar course to that which we would follow in seeking to obtain their intelligent appreciation of a rule in arithmetic or a proposition in Chemistry. When asked what makes the rule in arithmetic or the proposition in Chemistry true, we answer by an appeal to the facts of which they are the expression. Similarly, if the teacher is asked by his pupils the reasons why theft is wrong, whatever form his answer may take, it must in the last resort be based on human experience, the factors of which are the facts of human nature and the circumstances in which man is placed.

In addition to inculcating what actions are morally good and what are morally bad, which is to train the intellectual side of conscience, the teacher has to endeavour to inspire in his pupils an over-mastering love and reverence for right-doing and an invincible repugnance to wrong-doing, that is, he has to train the emotional side of conscience. Here the teacher has the whole domain of human feeling to operate upon, and he will endeavour to store the minds of his pupils with lofty moral ideals round which these feelings may crystallize. "Virtuous life implies a habitual impulse or motive to do right and abstain from wrong. This impulse or motive is made up of feelings of various kinds. In fact, there is no emotion of the human breast which may not become a minister of good."

Besides inculcating what actions are right and what wrong, and in addition to rousing and developing the moral sentiments and presenting to their minds ideals of

personal character drawn from the domains of religion, poetry, history, daily life and fiction, round which those sentiments may gather, the teacher is called upon to superintend the active life of his pupils by checking wayward tendencies as they actually arise and rendering willing assistance when pupils are trying to overcome the difficulties that at first beset the path of duty. The habit of obedience to the moral motive cannot be acquired without constant practice in doing right. Practical morality is an art which is learnt like every other art solely by doing moral actions. The young may have acquired correct ideas as to the moral code, as to the actions which are respectively right and wrong. Their moral sentiments may have been called forth, stimulated, broadened, and deepened. They may have felt the glow of moral approval at the recital of a good action. The feeling of moral indignation may have been roused by the tale of wrong doing. But all these, though good as far as they go and indispensable, do not constitute a confirmed moral character. To acquire this the young must enter the arena of moral conflict, grapple with the difficulties of daily life, and gain moral strength by the exercise of their moral faculties. It is here that the experience of the teacher is of the utmost value. A word of encouragement, a helping hand, the removal of an obstacle, may change into a victory what would otherwise have been a disastrous defeat. Similarly, a barrier thrown up between him and a contemplated wrong action, a sign of disapproval, if need be, an absolute prohibition, may save a youth from taking the first step in a downward course.

Such being the nature of moral training, what part does religious instruction play in effecting it? If religion be, as it is often said to be, something apart from creeds, dogmas, or ritual, it is practically identical with morality; religion being regard for duty and morality practical religion. But when it is said that religion is the basis of morality and that moral training cannot be separated from religious instruction, religion is probably understood to embrace one or other or all of the following: the creed or body of theological dogmas, the feelings which spring up in our minds when we contemplate the deity, and the ritual or outward forms by which we express those feelings. Now it cannot be affirmed that morality is based on the creed or body of theological beliefs or dogmas. It is quite true that moral rules otherwise originating do, in course of time, connect themselves with the theological creed, the dictates of morality coming to be conceived as expressions of the Divine will which serves as a corroboration of them. In the moral instruction of the young we may, pending the development of their intelligence, present moral rules merely as Divine enactments, just as we issue commands to our children which seems to them to have no other foundation than our own wills. But this is a very different thing from making theological dogmas the basis of moral laws,—a procedure which assumes that we first arrive at a religious creed, and having got that proceed to deduce from it a morality. In proof that morality does not ultimately rest on religious dogmas, I would adduce the fact that the moral characteristics of a given religion are the chief credentials upon which we finally decide, whether the religion comes from God or not. It is not mainly, in view of its moral character, that Christianity bears such favourable comparison with other religious systems? Have there not been, are there not, religious beliefs utterly antagonistic to genuine morality? In spite of

this, people speak and write as if the problem of moral education would be solved were religious instruction provided for the young ! It surely ought to be recognized that everything will depend on the moral character of the religious beliefs inculcated. No one would recommend the teaching of any or every religious dogma in Indian schools ; and until such beliefs, as may, on moral grounds, be taught are separated from such as may not be taught, the question of religious instruction must remain one on which no practical policy can be adopted. My position is this : certain religious creeds are utterly immoral in the main dogmas, rendering it hopeless to look to them for help in training the young in habits of right conduct. Other creeds contain, mingled in varying proportions, beliefs some favorable and some unfavorable to virtue ; and if they are to assist at all in moral training, the wheat must be separated from the chaff, those dogmas only being inculcated which make for virtue. If religious beliefs have thus to be subjected to a moral test before they can be admitted as subjects of instruction, what meaning can be attached to the popular opinion that morality is based on religion, or that religious instruction is the indispensable condition of moral training ? However hopeful it may be as a sign that men are bethinking themselves as to the highest problems of human destiny, the present vague demand for ethico-religious instruction in schools can have no other effect if an attempt be made to comply with it than seriously to impair the efficiency of scholastic instruction without improving the position of either morality or religion. This conviction has lately been strengthened on hearing an eminent Hindu reformer, who is also a zealous advocate of ethico-religious instruction in schools, urging his fellow-countrymen to see to it that their children are " well posted up " in the tenets of Hinduism as a safeguard against Christianity. To say nothing of the light this throws on the absence of unanimity as to the religious creed which is to serve as the basis of moral instruction in schools, I would ask whether a religious instruction which consists in storing or cramming the mind with theological tenets will afford a suitable foundation for the moral training which all recognize as indispensable ?

In the preceding paragraph I have been mainly endeavouring to show that though religion implies a body of dogmas and morality a code of rules, we must not attempt to refer the rules of the moral code to the dogmas of the religious creed as their foundation. Even where it is in harmony with the moral rule, the theological dogma is not the ground of the rule, but merely the religious expression of it. I have already said that moral training includes the cultivation of the moral feelings, and that religion embraces, in addition to a body of dogma, the feelings with which we contemplate the Divine Being. This, it seems to me, points to the true sphere of religion in moral education. The teacher in cultivating the emotional side of conscience has the entire field of the human feeling to operate in, and he will not neglect to call to his aid the religious feelings, the motive power of which experience proves to be so great. In doing this he will not, however, act as if the religious sanction were the only sanction of morality. The barrier which he will seek to raise up between his pupils and wrong-doing may take the form of appeals directed mainly to their love of self, or to their love of their fellows, or to their love of God. Much will depend on circumstance, much on the personal character of his pupils. The religious emotions may be from constitutional causes comparatively weak in

one pupil, and however much the teacher may wish to stimulate and strengthen them, the pressing claims of conduct cannot wait till this desirable result is achieved, and the appeal must be directed to other motives. It may also happen that the religion professed by the pupil is of a comparatively low type, the impulse derived from it being from the moralist's point of view insignificant; it may be even detrimental, and therefore to be avoided. But when the religious emotion takes, as in Christianity, the form of loving reverence, typified by the relationship of a son to a father, the teacher can appeal to a sanction the moral power of which is incalculable.

I need hardly state explicitly that even from the point of view in which the relation of religion and morality has been looked at in the last paragraph, religion still appears as the hand-maiden of morality. The religious emotions can be appealed to as a sanction of morality only in proportion as the theological creed has become purified and adapted to the highest moral standard of the community.

And now, finally, what about the moral disability under which teachers in Government schools, and secular teacher generally, are supposed to labor? The principle of religious neutrality as interpreted by Government debarb the teacher from inculcating theological dogmas, but does this in the least degree weaken his position as a teacher of morals? Assuredly not, unless it can be shown that the moral code depends on the theological creed. But instead of this being the case, the relationship is in point of fact the very opposite. Theological dogmas have to adapt themselves to moral requirements; the history of religious belief is a record of the gradual accommodation of theological conceptions to the highest moral ideals of the race. Instead of having to use the theological creed as a lever for the elevation of moral character, the teacher appeals to that human nature and those conditions of human life on which moral rules ultimately rest, and which are as fully and freely at his disposal as they are at the disposal of any other man. To say that because a teacher does not instruct his pupils in Chemistry, he is at a disadvantage in instructing them in mathematics would be as near the truth as to say that because he does not inculcate some theological creed, he is at a disadvantage in training them in right conduct.

Is the teacher in Government schools under any disability in his attempts to develop the emotional side of the moral faculty? I trow not. Leaving aside for the moment the religious feelings, it will not be denied that all the other human feelings are opened to him as freely and fully as to the religious teacher. As to the religious feelings, does the principle of religious neutrality prevent him from appealing to them? I do not think it does. Just as the moral emotions in their main features are common to all, though moral codes may be very different, so the religious emotions partake more or less of a common character though they may be connected with diverse creeds. The teacher will in no way violate the principle of religious neutrality when he appeals to the religious feelings of his pupils,—feelings which he and they share in common. And if in any of his pupils he recognizes that that very complex feeling we call religious emotion contains elements which are less favorable to a high type of moral character, or it may be positively unfavourable, he will carefully abstain from making the appeal to such elements. In doing so he

merely exercises the same moral discrimination as he would exercise with regard to the feelings of his own co-religionists, when they are appealed to in the training of moral character.

Nor does adherence to the principle of religious neutrality place the teacher under a disability in that third aspect of his work, which consists in superintending his pupils in the unremitting practice of moral actions, until active moral habits have been formed and confirmed. Here everything depends on the character of the teacher, and I shall not stoop to argue with those who assume that the moral character of teachers in a Government school or college is inferior to that of teachers in mission institutions.

APPENDIX J.

MISSIONARY EDUCATION.

DANISH MISSION.

The Danish Missionaries arrived in Madras in the early part of the year 1717, when, according to the Proceedings Book of the Madras Government, Monday, 27th May, "the President lays before the Board a paper of proposals delivered him by Mr. Grundler, one of the Danish missionaries lately arrived from Tranquebar, for erecting two Charity schools in this city. It is agreed that liberty be given for erecting two Charity schools—one for Portuguese in the English town, and another for Malabars in the Black Town." Thus the first public effort to educate the "Malabar" or Tamil people was at the hands of missionaries. The pyal schools had received no State or Municipal recognition. When these schools were established, the factors and other residents of Madras disapproved of the teachers being foreigners, and repeated protests were made to the Home Authorities. The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge replied that no Englishman could be persuaded to go out. In 1746 English was employed as the language of the mission, being introduced by the missionary Geister. This was not effected without opposition on the part of the other German and Danish missionaries. However, not long after this the German language was forgotten, and the missionaries themselves became Anglicised, founding the well-known families of the Kohlhoffs, Breithaupt, Paezolds, Pohles, and others. Emulating the activity of Ziegenbalg and his colleagues the Company established in 1717 a school for native children at Cuddalore. This was the beginning of the great system of Anglo-Vernacular education maintained under the patronage of Government in this Presidency. Mr. Ord had confined his labours to English children. The second schoolmaster whose name survives was named Radewitz, who was for many years the teacher of the Portuguese school established by Ziegenbalg in the Fort. He died in 1732. The Malabar, or native school, opened by Ziegenbalg, or under his direction, soon ceased to exist, for there was no public appreciation of the value of education, and the natives held aloof from the school because of its Christian character. When the Missionary Schultze settled in Madras in 1726, he re-opened this school, and, under his energetic direction, it soon filled with scholars, and was the origin of the present Vepery Anglo-Vernacular school, which has enjoyed an almost continuous existence ever since the original school was first located in Black Town. The different schools thus founded were maintained for many years entirely from funds provided by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE.

Established in 1699 during the reign of William III. for the purpose of spreading Christian Knowledge, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge very soon found itself engaged in semi-missionary operations. To allow purely mission work to be

carried on without interfering with the true work of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, its founders established in 1701 a new Society that for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, and from that day to this the two Societies have worked hand-in-hand, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel providing missionaries, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge helping them with schools and furnishing books. One of the first objects of the Society's concern has always been to promote the education of the young by liberally communicating its resources for the benefit of charity schools. In or about 1711 the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge heard of the labours and requirements of the Tranquebar mission and sent them money, a printing press, paper, and other stores. In 1714 Ziegenbalg went to Europe for the purpose of promoting the cause he had engaged in. He was presented to the King of Denmark at Stralsund; and on visiting England was admitted to the presence of George I. by whom he was warmly encouraged. The bishops and the public received him with much cordiality; and the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge in particular treated him with distinction, and aided him with presents of money, books, paper, and similar stores. After an absence of nearly two years, Ziegenbalg re-landed at Madras in August 1716. Here with the assistance of the Rev. William Stevenson, the garrison chaplain, schools were soon established at Madras and at Cuddalore. The latter of these places Ziegenbalg occasionally visited; it was here, too, that eventually he died in February 1719 at the early age of 36. Mr. Stevenson went home. His schools fell off, and were finally closed. Under these circumstances, in 1726, Schultze resolved to remove to Madras. The Christian Knowledge Society approved of the undertaking and gave the necessary aid to promote it; the garrison chaplain entered into his views; the Governor and Council were enlisted in his favour: and under these favourable auspices Schultze established in Black Town a house purchased in 1728 expressly for the use of the mission. In 1734 Mr. Schultze informed the Society that in a recent visit of Mr. Sartorius to Fort St. David, the Governor of that station had expressed his willingness to co-operate in the establishment of a mission in the neighbourhood. The Society immediately authorized Mr. Schultze to take the necessary steps for the execution of this plan; and to prove their readiness to promote the full efficiency of their new missions, sent at the same time a munificent contribution towards the erection of a church and two schools at Madras. The amount of money sent out by this Society in the years 1736 and 1737 was £3,200, which liberality enabled the missionaries to establish themselves effectually at Cuddalore, to which place Sartorius and Geister now removed. In 1746 the French under La Bourdonnais bombarded Madras; and having compelled Fort St. George to capitulate, they levelled a great part of Black Town for the purpose of improving the defences. Up to that time Black Town extended right across the esplanade to the Fort wall. In fact the burial ground, now remembered only by the monument to the daughter of Governor Yale still standing on the monument esplanade, was then in the heart of Black Town, and the best houses were those nearest the fort. Among them was the German mission-house, which was thus destroyed. The church was converted into a magazine. Mr. Fabracius removed to Pulicat, then a Dutch settlement, where he and his converts were well received. While Dupleix was in possession of

Madras and he believed the English could never return, he gave permission to a wealthy Armenian Roman Catholic merchant to build a church and mission buildings at Vepery on land which he assigned for the purpose. It was on the site of the present Vepery Church, and, in fact, was the building which served as the Vepery Church until the present building was erected. When the English regained Madras, the Armenian merchant and the Catholics generally were held to be intriguing with the French at Pondicherry. The Vepery premises were therefore confiscated by Government. In 1752 the local Government presented them to the Protestant mission. In November 1760 Count Lally besieged Madras; and Mr. Fabricius at Vepery was a second time exposed to the dangers and difficulties incident to such a state of things. Before he could obtain protection from the French officers, the native cavalry which accompanied the force had plundered him and his colleague Breithaupt of nearly all they possessed. The risk incurred by remaining amidst such scenes of violence induced the missionaries to remove, as on the former occasion, to Pulicat, where, though accompanied by a crowd of destitute and helpless followers, they were again most hospitably received by the Dutch. In February 1761, Madras having been relieved and the siege raised, the missionaries returned to Vepery. The year 1761 was also made remarkable by the establishment of the first printing-press in Madras. It was found at Pondicherry when that place was captured. The Government presented it to the mission, which thereupon set up the printing-press at Vepery which still remains one of the most perfect in this Presidency. In the year 1784 the Christian Knowledge Society having heard of the valuable institution in Bengal for the education in Christian principles of the children of English fathers by native mothers, voted a sum of £50 annually for the maintenance of a schoolmaster at Madras, who should be required to give instruction to that class of children. In 1786 Government made another step by aiding the foundation of the Military Female Orphan Asylum. The buildings were presented to the Asylum Committee by the Nawab of the Carnatic who purchased them for the purpose at a cost of Rupees 80,000. The Missionary Gerické was the first Superintendent. The institution was highly successful, and led two years afterwards to the foundation of the Military Male Orphan Asylum. The opening of the latter marked an era in the history of elementary education not only in Madras, but throughout the world. Its first Superintendent was the famous Dr. Bell, whose interest in education was so great that he served without a salary, so that funds might be provided for the improvement of the school. Want of means to provide for the great number of applicants for admission, combined with the fact that there were no competent teachers that could be engaged to assist him, led Dr. Bell to invent what has since been known as the monitorial system of education. Known at first as Dr. Bell's or the Madras system, it at once revealed how education could be both efficient and inexpensive, and thus became the basis of all modern progress in elementary education. What are known as the Lancasterian, Pestalozzian, Glasgow, monitorial, and pupil-teacher systems have all grown out of this, and every public elementary school in England is now conducted on one or other modification or the Madras system. About the same time Mr. Sullivan, then Resident at Tanjore, invited Swartz to accompany him in the capacity of an interpreter on a visit to the Maravar country. At Ramnad, Mr. Sullivan acquainted Swartz with a plan he had

devised for instructing the natives, and establishing schools in every province. This plan was that a seminary should be established at Tanjore, under the missionary's personal supervision, for the education of schoolmasters, who should afterwards be located in the several villages of the country at the expense of the petty princes. The Raja of Ramnad was spoken with on the subject, and thought "it would be an excellent plan," wishing "there were such schools in every village." His minister also approved it, and the Raja gave a written promise to settle a monthly sum, afterwards fixed at 24 pagodas to be paid to the school. At Sivaganga also the local ruler approved of the plan, and promised to give a village for the support of a schoolmaster. He subsequently gave two villages. The Governor of Madras and the Nawab of Arcot were next written to, and both highly commended the plan. The Raja of Tanjore promised 40 pagodas a month for the support of the school to be established in or near the fort. These provincial schools answered exceedingly well. In those at Tanjore and Kumbakonam there were already 40 scholars; while in the Tamil school at Tanjore there were 99 boys, of whom 35 were charity boys maintained and clothed by the mission. Two English schoolmasters were employed for the provincial schools, and four masters were engaged for the Tamil school. By the will of Mr. Gerické, who died in 1803, it appears that an English Orphan Asylum for children not eligible for the Military Asylums had existed in connexion with the Vepery Mission for many years previously. This orphanage was probably the origin of the present Civil Orphan Asylums. The school continued to flourish, and in 1793 the Raja of Tanjore sent his son and successor Sarbhoji to be educated there under the Missionary Gerické. Sarbhoji remained in the school from 1793 to 1797. Meanwhile the printing-press had not flourished, and in 1810 it had to be closed because there were no means of paying the workmen, although there were ample stores of paper, type, &c. This was the more to be regretted, because from the first the profits had been destined for the support of schools. Later the press was reorganised. This was owing to the establishment in 1815 of the District Committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge which relieved the missionaries of the care of secular matters and infused new vigour into the whole work. Madras education is much indebted to the zealous work of this little known but very useful body. At Tinnevely Mr. Hough reported that he had, under the auspices of the Society, established nine schools, in which were educated 283 children, the total annual expense amounting to only 357 rupees. In 1815 a change of organization was made. It had for some time been felt that the Christian Knowledge Society, from the nature of its constitution and its peculiar objects and principles, laboured under several disadvantages in its attempts to conduct so extensive a missionary establishment; and in the year 1825 the Society's missions were by mutual agreement transferred to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, a District Committee of which was established in Madras in the year 1826. The terms on which this transfer was made appear to have been understood as follows:—That the Christian Knowledge Society should continue to maintain those missionaries, who, from their having been for some years in their service, could not with propriety be uncereimoniously transferred to another Society; that it should retain its right to the property purchased and acquired in the several missions during its administrations of their affairs; and that by means of its press

at Vepery and its grants of books, stationery, &c., it should maintain or supply schools for the education of the natives ; and thus by furnishing them with European knowledge it should facilitate the operations of the sister Society, which henceforth undertook the whole management and direction of the missions. From this time, therefore, the history of the missions belongs to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The press was still managed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge and became each year more successful. The paper, presses, English type, ink, binding materials, &c., were supplied from England at great expense, while the types for the several eastern languages were cut and founded in the establishment itself. The benefits derivable to the natives from this institution were great and various. Elementary school books in a variety of languages were supplied most liberally to the several missions : the money proceeds of the establishment, after payment of the workmen, went to form a fund called the "Native Education Fund" dedicated, as its name imports, solely to the maintenance of native schools in various parts of the Madras Presidency. Under the direction of the Committee, the Vepery Grammar School was repeatedly enlarged, and became, till the establishment of the Free Church Mission, the chief educational agency in Madras. There were also two "Charity schools," for the Christian children, boys and girls, of Vepery, and, lastly, schools where native children of both sexes were taught without charge. The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge were thus the pioneers of female education. The proportion of female scholars at Vepery at this time is especially striking ; being 654 to 4,290 boys, or 1 girl for every $6\frac{1}{2}$ boys. Bishop Corrie's school was opened as the "Madras Grammar School" on the 1st July 1836, under the advice of Bishop Corrie and with the aid of the Christian Knowledge Society.

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

In 1805 the London Missionary Society commenced its work in Madras. The labours of the missionaries at Serampore had drawn the attention of the Society to India, and, as soon as there was any liberty of entrance, a missionary was sent to Madras, and he at once opened a school. From that day to this the London Mission has honourably distinguished itself in education. In recent years it has not aimed at academical distinction, but its schools are efficient and popular, and the central institution in Armenian street was for several years a leading institution in Madras. It has, however, been recently closed.

THE WESLEYAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

The Wesleyan Mission commenced operations in Madras in 1819 when Messrs. Squance, Lynch, and Close came from Ceylon to establish a mission there. In Ceylon schools had formed a most important part of the mission work, and have continued to flourish there from that day to this. In 1819 when the Madras mission opened, the Society maintained no less than 87 schools in Ceylon, attended by 5,014 children, of whom many were girls. Probably no other mission to the east ever maintained so perfect a school system as that which existed in Ceylon. The great institution at Jaffna was in after-years a sort of University, from which issued large numbers of Native Christians, who have since risen to eminence in both Ceylon and Southern India. It was to be expected, therefore, that schools should form an important part of the early work of the Wesleyan Mission in Madras

Before the Society had been a year in Madras it had established two schools, one at Rayapet and the other in Black Town. The former was the origin of the present Rayapet College, which has enjoyed a continuous existence, though not always in the same premises, from that day to this, and is, therefore, only second to the Vepery Anglo-Vernacular school in point of age. In 1823 two new schools were opened at Negapatam. No other missionary body established schools for a long period after the London and Wesleyan Missionary Societies were in the field. Attention may be turned here to the operations of the State in connection with education. The Protestant mission, conducted successively by Messrs. Ziegenbalg, Gerické, Kiernander, and Swartz, under the patronage, as has been seen, of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, had opened schools at Madras, Cuddalore, Tanjore and Trichinopoly, in which they instructed the natives, and in aid of which they obtained occasional grants from the local Governments, and permission from the Court of Directors to receive from the Society in England various supplies free of freight. In 1787 the Court of Directors authorised a permanent annual grant towards the support of three schools which had been established with the sanction of the respective Rajas at Tanjore, Ramnad and Sivaganga, of 250 pagodas each. These schools were under the direction of Mr. Swartz. The Court further directed that a similar allowance should be granted to any other schools which might be opened for the same purpose. According to the books of establishment, the charge on this account was for two Protestant schools at Tanjore and Kumbakonam Rupees 4,200 per annum, together with a pension or allowance to Mr. Kolhoop, a retired teacher, of Rupees 420, making a total of Rupees 4,620 per annum. In 1824 the widow Swartz enjoyed a pension from the British Government of two pagodas per month at Negapatam, and an unmarried woman of the same name a monthly allowance of one fanam. In January 1812 a Sunday School was established at St. Thomas' Mount, at the suggestion and under the direction of the Military Chaplain at that cantonment, and by the voluntary contributions of several Europeans at the Presidency. The object of this school was to afford elementary instruction on the Lancasterian plan to the half-caste and native children of the military and others resident there. The object as well as the plan of tuition being highly approved of by the Government, an endowment of 300 pagodas per annum was granted from the 1st January 1812.

THE SCOTTISH MISSIONS.

The Scottish Mission entered the field in April 1837 the date on which Mr. Anderson opened his school. This was an era in the history of Madras education, and it is necessary to note here the progress of what was first known as the mission of the Church of Scotland and afterwards as the Free Church Mission. This educational agency was one of the last to come into the field, but mainly owing to the great energy and ability of two missionaries, the Revs. John Anderson and William Miller, has grown to be one of the most important in the Presidency. In June 1835 the Rev. Messrs. Bowie and Lawrie, Scotch Chaplains, had established at Madras the St. Andrew's school; and, after collecting funds from friends in the Presidency, they had applied to the Church of Scotland for a missionary, with the view to the establishment of an institution like that commenced at Calcutta by Dr. Duff in 1830. In response to this invitation the Rev. J. Anderson was sent from Scotland in 1836.

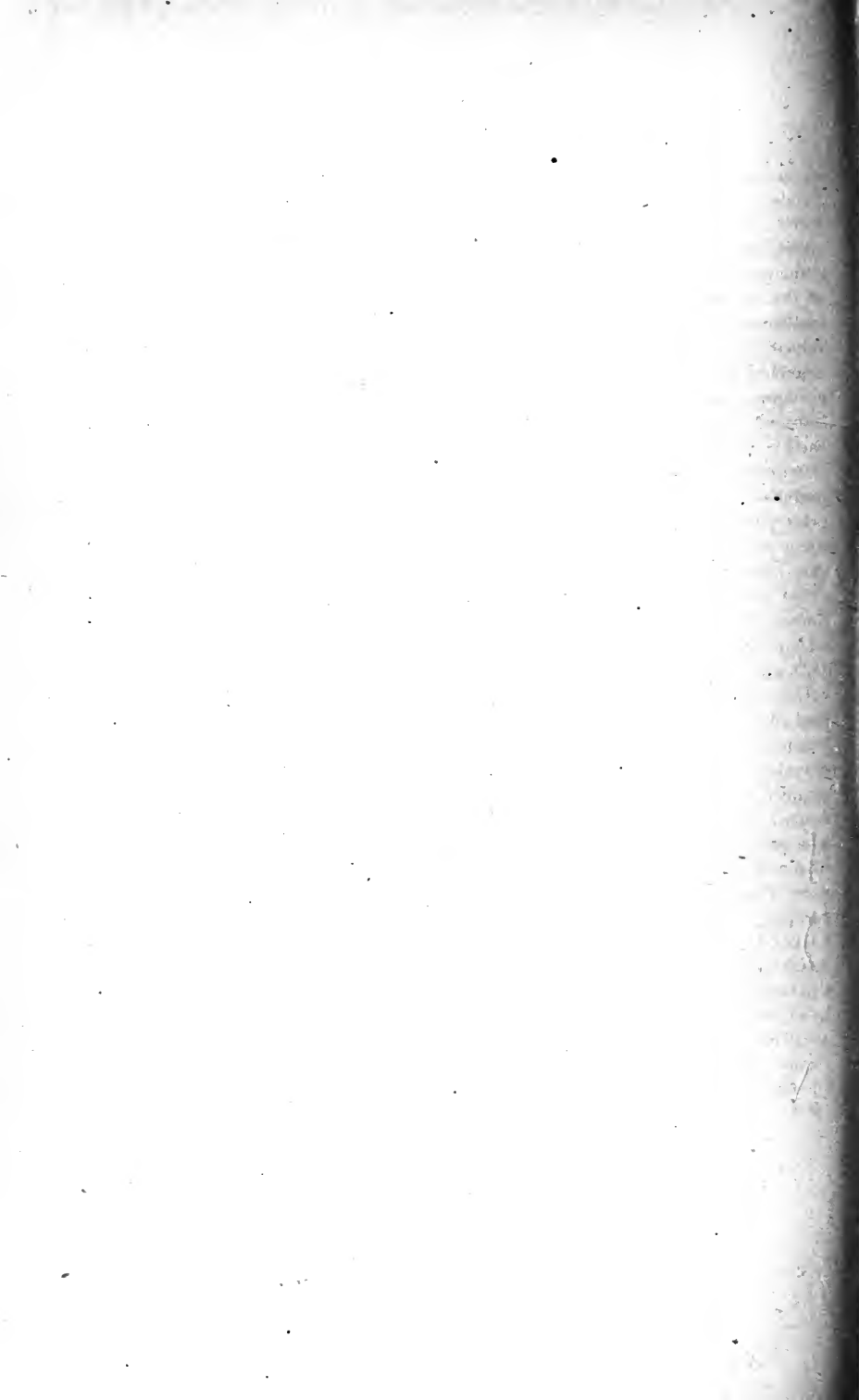
He proceeded first to Calcutta in order to observe the modes of instruction and discipline at Dr. Duff's institution at that city. After a short stay there he came to Madras in February 1837, and at once set to work. St. Andrew's school was carried on near a house, in St. Andrew's Church, Poonamallee Road. Mr. Anderson urged its removal into the city, with a view to benefit more effectually the dense native community. A suitable two-storied house was hired in Armenian street; and here, on April 3, 1837, he began his labours with 59 Hindu boys and young men. In January 1839, Mr. Johnstone came to assist Mr. Anderson. His arrival was the signal for an extension of the work, and a branch school was opened at Conjeeveram, in May 1839, with eleven pupils. Mr. Frederick Cooper, Company's Medical Officer at Nellore, had established, some years before, a school for Telugu and English, and having intimated a desire to connect it with the mission, Mr. Anderson went to Nellore to judge how far it would be advisable to accept the proposal. This led to the annexation of the Nellore school and property to the Mission in August. In this year the mission made yet another step. In 1841 a school was established at Triplicane. Mr. Anderson was invited by Mr. W. A. Morehead, then Judge at Chingleput, to supply a teacher to the school which he had induced the natives of the place to set up. This led to the adoption of Chingleput as a new branch station. Up to this time the mission had been connected with the Established Church of Scotland, but in 1843 when the Free Church seceded on the question of patronage and State interference, all the Indian missionaries joined the seceding Free Church, and carried with them, after an amicable discussion, the whole of the mission work. It is, therefore, only from 1843 that the Free Church dates, although there was no break in the continuity of the mission. By the end of 1843 the schools had altogether recovered, and their numbers exceeded those of any former year. In February 1845 the Established Church of Scotland re-opened their own mission with a large school, the origin of the institution now on the North Beach, with branch institutions at Vellore and Arkonam. This soon became full of scholars without in any way diminishing the number at Anderson's school, so that the cause of education was again benefitted. In 1853 Mr. Johnstone died, and similarly in 1855 Mr. Anderson. From that time a great declension fell upon the mission. None could be found to tread in the steps of the founders of the mission. Many took up the task, but the climate and the magnitude of the labours involved caused the retirement of one after another till it was difficult to get any to succeed them. Matters continued unsettled till the arrival of the Rev. W. Miller in 1863.

APPENDIX K.

PACHAIYAPPA'S SCHOOLS.

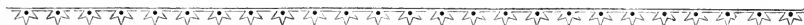
The founding of Pachaiyappa's schools marks indeed an era in the history of Madras education, as it was the first example of intelligent natives of various castes combining to aid the cause of popular instruction. Pachaiyappa, in whose name these institutions are founded, was a wealthy Hindu, who, dying in the last century, left one lakh of pagodas by his will for the establishment of charities, chiefly of a religious character, but in part dedicated to objects of general benevolence. The Advocate-General, Sir Herbert Campion, having discovered that these charities were totally unperformed, and that the funds were spoliated by the successive executors of his will, filed an information in the Supreme Court, and obtained a general decree against the party finally liable for an account of the fund, to be paid with accumulated interest—amounting to many lakhs of rupees—and also for the performance of the charities. On the whole there were finally collected to the credit of the charities nearly eight lakhs of rupees. A scheme was prepared, whereby, in due accordance with the provisions of the will, and without trenching upon any specific religious or benevolent charities mentioned in the will, it was proposed that all the accumulated sums beyond one lakh of pagodas (that is, upwards of four lakhs of rupees with all accumulating interest) should be devoted to educational establishments in various parts of the Presidency, and particularly at Madras. The scheme provided all details for the quality, localities, subjects of instruction, and governance of these institutions; and they were all finally incorporated in a decree of the Court. After some years directions were given, under Lord Elphinstone's Government, for the Board of Revenue making such orders as were necessary to carry out the decree of the Supreme Court and the wishes of the Court of Directors. A body of Hindu Trustees was formed and a school in Black Town was established in January 1842, for affording gratuitous education to the poorer classes of the native community in the elementary branches of English literature and science, coupled with instruction in Tamil and Telugu. The High school of the Madras University was then in its infancy, and, as according to the rules of that institution, no boy was eligible for admission who could not read English with some fluency, the want of a school of this primary nature was urgently felt by the rich as well as the poor. Further, as the education was imparted *gratis*, according to the fundamental rules of the institution, the sphere of its usefulness became wider and wider, till its numerical strength surpassed all expectation, and the trustees found themselves necessitated, though unwillingly, to restrict the rapid influx of pupils, and to refuse to listen to pressing demands for admission. A small monthly fee then began to be levied from each pupil. It was the original intention of the trustees to establish a few schools in the provinces contemporaneously with the central institution in the Presidency; but circumstances deterred them from engaging in the task. The central school was, therefore, first established and conducted under their immediate

supervision. Emboldened by its success, a branch school was then opened at Conjeeveram in the year 1846, on a limited scale, to be extended in case it should work to their satisfaction. There were, in 1855, 64 boys studying in the new school, which imparted instruction in English, Tamil, and Telugu. The branch school at Chidambaram was opened in the year 1850. The number of scholars on the rolls of the institution at the end of 1854 was 65. About the same time that the central institution was established in Black Town an endowment was founded in the high school of the Madras University, with a view of providing education in the higher branches of literature and science to lads in poor circumstances, and deserving of encouragement. Those that enjoyed the benefit of this endowment were divided into two classes, called Pachaiyappa's Free and Endowed Scholars; the former had their school fee paid from the endowment, and the latter were in receipt of monthly stipends. The Trustees also gave great aid to certain vernacular institutions established in and about Madras. These institutions are founded on systematic principles, and afford to the young useful instruction in Tamil and Telugu, in some instances combined with Sanskrit. The foundation-stone of the fine hall of this institution was laid by Mr. George Norton, Advocate-General and patron of these educational charities, in the midst of a vast concourse of the native inhabitants of Madras, on the 2nd October 1846. In 1850 the building was formally opened by Sir Henry Pottinger and the central institution was moved into it. From 1858 pupils have been appearing for the Matriculation Examination from this institution. In 1890 it was raised to the rank of a second-grade college, and in 1889 it was affiliated to the University up to the B. A. Degree examination. In 1846 the Pachaiyappa Trustees took over the charities of another rich native named Govindu Nayakar. In 1856 scholarships were given in this benefactor's name at Pachaiyappa's schools, and later on a separate primary school was opened from the same funds. The new institution was called "Govindu Nayakar's Primary School," and was opened in 1864. In the year 1869 a third school of equal importance was established by means of a bequest from C. Srinivasa Pillai, who had been for several years President of Pachaiyappa's charities. This school which was chiefly intended for the education of Hindu girls has recently been transferred to the National Indian Association. In 1872, the Trustees received another benefaction of Rupees 20,000 from one Ponnambala Pillai, and with it a Sanscrit school was established at Chidambaram in 1874. The last and the most valuable bequest was that of P. T. Lee Chengalraya Nayakar, which enabled the Trustees in 1886 to develop the short-hand class formed in 1884 as a tentative measure in connexion with Pachaiyappa's College, into a regular Commercial High school bearing the name of Chengalraya Nayakar. Over 150 students were learning Commercial subjects in 1892.





STATISTICAL TABLES.



STATISTICAL TABLE I.*Progress of Education between 1858-59 and 1870-71.*

Years.	GOVERNMENT.		NON-GOVERNMENT.		TOTAL.		FEE RECEIPTS.		GROSS EXPENDITURE.		Aggregate of Grants-in-Aid (excluding building grants).
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Government.	Non-Govt.	On Govt. Institutions.	On Non-Government.	
1858—59 ...	122	4,488	337	10,452	459	14,940	Rs. 10,831	Rs. 17,316	Rs. 1,68,348	Rs. 1,85,829	26,354
1859—60 ...	141	7,094	331	13,657	472	20,751	24,437	16,609	1,79,474	1,77,135	29,855
1860—61 ...	}
1861—62 ...											
1862—63 ...	131	5,974	678	18,805	809	24,779	29,346	37,925	1,93,091	2,05,104	38,116
1863—64 ...	121	6,650	754	20,095	875	26,745	28,216	31,898	2,06,348	2,46,686	50,642
1864—65 ...	110	6,310	873	23,844	983	30,154	29,115	84,843	2,07,396	3,48,617	81,627
1865—66 ...	109	6,825	1,152	29,907	1,261	36,732	48,838	68,784	2,10,432	3,96,466	1,16,876
1866—67 ...	106	7,039	1,280	28,910	1,386	35,949	48,678	75,704	1,92,756	4,90,718	1,32,295
1867—68 ...	115	9,074	1,572	51,640	1,687	60,714	72,614	1,14,873	2,26,827	5,98,101	1,54,353
1868—69 ...	117	9,390	2,304	75,298	2,421	84,688	67,730	1,56,894	2,55,355	7,38,416	2,29,921
1869—70 ...	116	8,854	3,018	94,399	3,134	1,03,253	73,463	2,45,116	2,59,065	10,06,600	2,96,424
1870—71 ...	119	9,166	3,360	1,03,610	3,479	1,12,776	75,869	2,51,569	2,65,139	10,39,034	3,35,395

Progress of the University of Madras between 1857-58 and 1880-81.

[illegible]

STATISTICAL TABLE IV.*General progress of Education between 1880-81 and 1892-93.*

Years.	Public Institutions.		Private Institutions.		Total of schools.	Total of pupils.
	No. of schools.	No. of pupils.	No. of schools.	No. of pupils.		
1880-81	12,878	3,27,808
1881-82	15,453	3,93,683
1882-83	17,494	4,46,324
1883-84	16,139	4,47,786
1884-85	15,587	4,30,851
1885-86	16,014	4,55,837
1886-87	16,717	4,88,942
1887-88	14,813	4,64,654	2,542	41,004	17,355	5,05,658
1888-89	15,379	4,92,514	3,552	59,638	18,931	5,52,152
1889-90	16,226	5,17,055	4,286	83,496	20,512	6,00,551
1890-91	18,839	5,83,137	3,189	61,027	22,028	6,44,164
1891-92	19,801	6,29,512	3,403	64,473	23,204	6,93,985
1892-93	20,861	6,68,510*	3,455	65,894	24,316	7,34,404

STATISTICAL TABLE V.*Progress of University Education between 1881-82 and 1892-93.*

Years.	B. A. EXAMINATION.		F. A. EXAMINATION.		MATRICULATION.	
	Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.
1881-82	261	144	733	423	3,725	1,131
1882-83	221	120	783	279	4,634	1,634
1883-84	334	159	1,110	501	5,290	1,739
1884-85	354	169	1,011	368	5,215	1,603
1885-86	474	163	1,354	456	5,805	1,895
1886-87	534	367	1,576	570	6,378	2,165
1887-88	479	236	1,745	516	6,582	1,963
1888-89	568	318	1,979	510	7,327	1,854
1889-90	524	300	2,013	359	7,104	1,611
1890-91	548	359	2,052	668	7,002	1,648
1891-92*	457	230	2,016	740	7,907	2,381
1892-93*	658	510	1,889	779	3,369	520
Total	5,412	3,075	18,261	6,169	70,338	20,144

* The figures for these years relate to the English language Division only.

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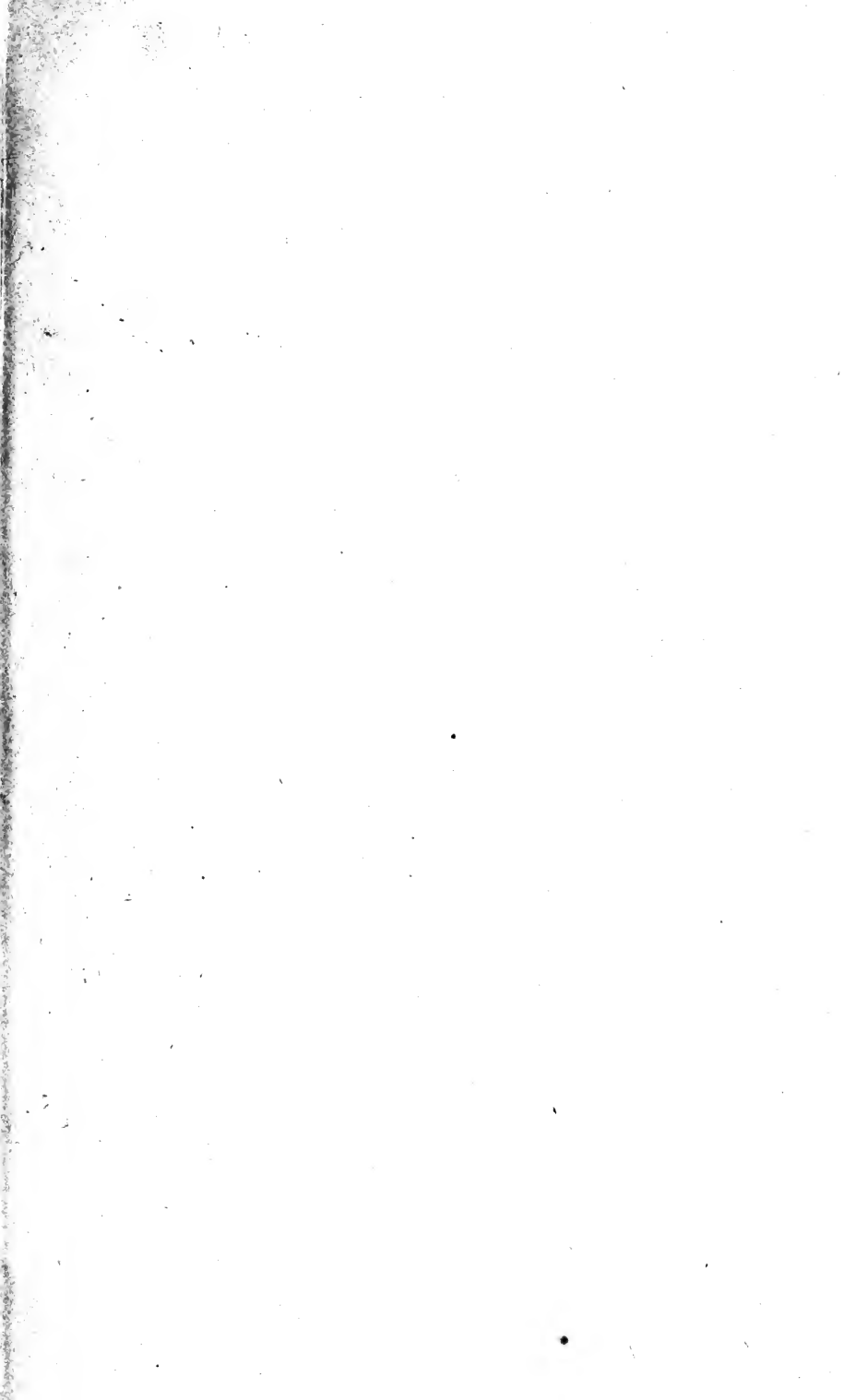
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